A SHORT

SYSTEM

OF

POLITE LEARNING:

BEING A CONCISE

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

ARTS AND SCIENCES,

AND

OTHER BRANCHES

OF

USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

ADAPTED FOR SCHOOLS.

> A taſte of every ſort of knowledge is neceſſary to form the mind;
> nd is the only way to give the underſtanding its due improvement
> the full extent of its capacity. LOCKE

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR W. BENT, PATER NOSTER ROW.
MDCCLXXXIX.

BRITISH LIBRARY
30 MAR 74

CONTENTS.

Of Arts and Sciences - - 1
Theology - - - 2
  Religion - - - 3
Philoſophy - - - 5
  Logic - - - - 5
  Ethics - - - 6
  Phyſics - - - 6
    Atmoſphere - - 7
    Meteors - - - 8
    Lightning and Thunder - 9
    Aurora Borealis - - 11
    Ignis Fatuus - - 11
    Wind - - - 12
    Clouds - - - - 14
    Rainbow - - - 15
    Hail - - - - 16
    Snow - - - 17
    Rain - - - 18
    Fog and Dew - - - 19
    Earthquakes - - 19
    Tides - - - 21
  Metaphyſics - - 22
Juriſprudence - - - 23
Phyſic - - - - 24
Rhetoric - - - 26
Grammar - - - 28
  Languages - - - 29
Poetry - - - 31

Muſic

CONTENTS.

- *Muſic* 32
- *Mathematics* 34
  - *Arithmetic* 35
  - *Geometry* 36
  - *Mechanics* 38
  - *Optics* 40
  - *Aſtronomy* 41
    - *Solar Syſtem* 42
    - *Fixed Stars* 49
  - *Geography* 51
    - *Europe* 54
    - *Aſia* 57
    - *Africa* 60
    - *America* 63
  - *Chronology* 67
  - *Architecture* 69
  - *Painting* 71
  - *Sculpture* 72
- *Mythology* 74
  - *Celeſtial Deities* 74
  - *Terreſtrial Deities* 80
  - *Marine Deities* 85
  - *Infernal Deities* 86
  - *Subordinate Deities* 89
  - *Demi-Gods* 90
- *Hiſtory* 90
- *Sovereigns of England* 94
- *Government of England* 110
- *Counties of England* 122

A
SYSTEM
OF
POLITE LEARNING.

Of Arts and Sciences.

Queſtion.

WHAT mean you by a ſcience?

Anſwer. A ſyſtem of any branch of knowledge, comprehending the doctrine, reaſon, and theory of the thing, without any immediate application of it to the uſes of life.

Q. What is an art?

A. A collection of rules and precepts for doing a thing ſurely; or, knowledge reduced into practice.

Q. How are the arts divided?

A. Into liberal and mechanical.

Q. What are the liberal arts?

A. Thoſe that are ingenious, or cultivated without any immediate regard to the lucre ariſing from them; as poetry, muſic, painting, rhetoric, grammar, ſculpture, &c.

Q. Why are they called liberal?

A. Becauſe the ancients allowed them to be ſtudied only by the *liberi* or free perſons.

Q. What are the mechanical arts?

A. Thoſe wherein the hand and body are more concerned than the mind, and which are cultivated for the ſake of the profit attending them; as weaving, turnery, maſonry, carpentry, &c. popularly known by the name of *trades.*

Q. Why are they termed mechanical?

A. They take their denomination from a Greek word [*mechane*] ſignifying a *machine*; as being all practiſed by means of ſome machine or inſtrument.

Q. What are the principal ſciences?

A. Theology, philoſophy, juriſprudence, phyſic, rhetoric, grammar, poetry, and mathematics.

THEOLOGY.

Q. What is theology?

A. A ſcience which inſtructs us in the knowledge of God, and the manner wherein he would be ſerved.

Q. How is the word theology derived?

A. From two Greek words [*Theos*, *logos*] ſignifying *the word of God*.

Q. How is theology divided?

A. Into natural and revealed: natural, is the knowledge we have of God from his works, by the light of nature and reaſon; and revealed, is that which we obtain by faith and revelation.

Q. To whom was the title of theologiſt, or divine firſt given?

A. To St. John, the evangeliſt, who was by that title diſtinguiſhed from the other three evangeliſts; becauſe their goſpels only contain the hiſtory of Chriſt, but that of St. John eſtabliſhes his eternal divinity (as the word of God) and his incarnation.

Religion.

Q. What is religion?

A. That worſhip or homage due to God, conſidered as creator, preſerver, and, with Chriſtians, redeemer of the world.

Q. What is the foundation of religion?

A. That there is a God; and that he requires ſome ſervice at the hands of his creatures.

Q. How is this knowledge obtained?

A. From the dictates of natural reaſon, and the expreſs declaration of God himſelf, by the mouths of prophets, &c.

Q. Are

Q. Are there not ſeveral religions in the world?

A. There are four principal; the Chriſtian, the Jewiſh, the Pagan, and the Mahometan.

Q. Who was the author of the Chriſtian religion?

A. Jeſus Chriſt, the Son of God, who left the boſom of the Father, to dwell in fleſh and blood here on earth; where, after performing many miracles, he was crucified and buried, but the third day he roſe from the dead, and ſhortly after aſcended to the Father.

Q. How is the Jewiſh religion founded?

A. On the Old Teſtament, and the law given by Moſes to the Iſraelites.

Q. What is the Pagan religion?

A. The Pagans, or Heathen nations, worſhip and adore falſe gods, or give thoſe honours to creatures, and the works of man's hand, that are only due to God.

Q. Who founded the Mahometan religion?

A. The impoſtor Mahomed, in the ſeventh century, whoſe whole doctrine is a ridiculous compound of Paganiſm, Judaiſm, and Chriſtian hereſies.

Q. What are the advantages of religion?

A. It inſpires ſincerity in all men, juſtice in princes, integrity in magiſtrates, fidelity in ſubjects, honeſty in trade, and union in families.

PHI-

PHILOSOPHY.

Q. What is philoſophy?

A. The ſtudy of nature and morality, founded on reaſon and experience.

Q. How is the word philoſophy derived?

A. From a compound Greek word [*philoſophia*] ſignifying *the love of wiſdom.*

Q. Into how many parts is it divided?

A. Two; theoretical and practical: the theoretical is that which is employed in the bare contemplation of nature, and natural things; and is ſubdivided into phyſics and metaphyſics: the practical is that which lays down rules, and excites to the practice of a virtuous life; and is ſubdivided into logic and ethics.

Logic.

Q. What is logic?

A. The art of thinking juſtly; or of uſing reaſon well in our inquiries after truth, and the communication of it to others.

Q. In what does this art conſiſt?

A. In the reflections made by men upon the four principal operations of the mind, perception, judgment, reaſoning, and diſpoſition.

Q. What are the advantages of logic?

A. It incites the mind to a cloſer application in thinking, ſo that we more eaſily diſcover the errors in our reaſoning; and by reflecting on the order of the operations of the mind, we are brought to a more perfect knowledge of the nature of our own underſtanding.

Ethics.

Q. How is ethics defined?

A. The doctrine of manners, or a ſcience of morals, for the behaviour and conduct of man, either in public or private life.

Q. What is its object?

A. The exerciſe of right reaſon in all the circumſtances of our actions, affairs, and reflections; ſo that we may arrive at the higheſt pitch of moral perfection and beatitude.

Phyſics.

Q. What is phyſics?

A. The doctrine of natural bodies, their phenomena, cauſes, and effects, with their various affections, motions, operations, &c. It is alſo called *phyſiology*, and *natural philoſophy*.

Q. In what does this ſcience inſtruct us?

A. It teaches us to explain all the phenomena of the earth; as the atmoſphere, meteors, earthquakes, tides, &c.

Of the Atmoſphere.

Q. What is the atmoſphere?

A. A thin, fluid, elaſtic ſubſtance, called *air*, which ſurrounds the earth to a conſiderable height; gravitates toward the center, on its ſurface; and is carried along with it in its annual and diurnal motions.

Q. How is air diſtinguiſhed?

A. Into elementary and heterogeneous.

Q. What is elementary air?

A. A ſubtle, homogeneous, elaſtic mattter; the fundamental ingredient of the atmoſpherical air. This air enters into the compoſition of all bodies, exiſting in them under a ſolid form, deprived of its elaſticity, and ſerving as their cement: it is the univerſal bond of nature, and in this ſtate is called *fixed air*.

Q. What is heterogeneous air?

A. A coalition of corpuſcles of various kinds, conſtituting that fluid maſs wherein we live and move, and which we are continually receiving and expelling by reſpiration: the whole aſſemblage of this makes what is called *atmoſpherical air*.

Q. What are the principal effects of its gravity?

A. Air is 840 times lighter than water; but from the great height of the atmoſphere, its gravity &c. ſo cloſely inveſts the earth, with all the bodies thereon, that it conſtringes and binds them down with a force amounting to upward of 15 pounds weight upon every ſquare inch: hence it prevents the veſſels of animals and plants from being too much diſtended by the impetus of the circulating blood and juices.

Q. Is not the atmoſphere divided into ſeveral ſtages.

A. Into three; called the upper, middle, and lower region: the air of the upper is thinner and colder than that of the middle, and that of the middle ſtill more ſo than the lower.

Of Meteors.

Q. What is a meteor?

A. A tranſient mixt body, or reſemblance of a body, appearing in the atmoſphere, formed out of the matter that floats there, and exhibiting various appearances.

Q. How are meteors divided?

A. Into three kinds; the igneous, aerial, and aqueous. The igneous kind, are lightning, Aurora borealis, ignis fatuus, falling ſtars, and other fiery phenomena. The aerial conſiſt of flatulent and ſpirituous exhalations; ſuch are winds, whirlwinds, and hurricanes. The aqueous are compoſed of vapours, or watery particles variouſly ſeparated, and condenſed by heat and cold; ſuch are clouds, rainbow, hail, ſnow, rain, dew, and the like.

Of Lightning and Thunder.

Q. What is lightning?

A. A large, bright flame, darting ſwiftly through the air to a conſiderable diſtance, of momentary duration, and commonly attended with thunder.

Q. How is this meteor accounted for?

A. Some have accounted for it by ſuppoſing, that from the exhalations of ſulphur, nitre, and other combuſtible matter in the atmoſphere, is formed an inflammable ſubſtance, which, by the percuſſion of two clouds or otherwiſe, takes fire. Others have explained it by the fermentation of ſulphureous ſubſtances with nitrous acids. But in the preſent advanced ſtate of electricity, lightning is univerſally allowed to be an electrical phenomenon.

Q. What is the cauſe of lightning?

A. The air being ſometimes electrified poſitively, and ſometimes negatively, it is eaſy to conceive, that when particular clouds or different parts of the earth poſſeſs oppoſite electricities, a diſcharge will take place within a certain diſtance;

tance; or the one will ſtrike into the other, and in the diſcharge a flaſh of lightning will be obſerved.

Q. How is thunder produced?

A. By a concuſſion in the air from an electrical exploſion; and the rattling noiſe is probably owing to the ſound being excited among clouds hanging over one another, and the agitated air paſſing irregularly between them.

Q. What is the reaſon that thunder is not heard till ſome time after the lightning is ſeen?

A. Becauſe ſound is much longer arriving to our ears, than light to our eyes.

Q. I have heard of thunder-bolts and their ſtrange effects, pray what are they?

A. What is vulgarly called a thunder-bolt, is only lightning when it acts with extraordinary violence, and breaks or ſhatters any thing. When the exploſion is high in the air, it will do no miſchief, but when near the earth it will kill animals, deſtroy trees, burn houſes, &c.

Q. How can we aſcertain its diſtance?

A. It may be eſtimated by the interval of time between the flaſh and the noiſe. The ordinary difference between the two is about ſeven ſeconds, which, at the rate of 1142 feet in a ſecond, gives the diſtance about a mile and a half; but ſometimes it comes in a ſecond or two, which argues the exploſion very near us, and even among us.

Of

Of the Aurora Borealis.

Q. What is the Aurora borealis?

A. An extraordinary luminous meteor, ſhewing itſelf in the night-time after a dry ſeaſon, chiefly in the northern part of the atmoſphere; and hence the vulgar give it the name of *northern lights* or *ſtreamers.*

Q. Pray deſcribe this meteor?

A. It appears moſt commonly in the form of an arch, partly bright, and partly dark, but always tranſparent, uſually of a red colour, inclining to yellow, and ſends out frequent coruſcations of pale light, which ſeem to riſe from the horizon in a pyramidal undulating form, and ſhoot, with great velocity, up to the zenith.

Q. How is it accounted for?

A. It is now deemed an electrical phenomenon, and ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by the daſhing of electric fire from poſitive toward negative parts of the atmoſphere at a great diſtance, in the upper region where the reſiſtance is leaſt; and that it appears chiefly in the northern parts, as the alteration in the heat of the air is there the greateſt.

Of the Ignis Fatuus.

Q. What is the ignis fatuus?

A. A common ignited meteor, chiefly ſeen in the night in meadows, marſhes, and other moiſt places. It is known among the vulgar by the appellations, *Will with a wiſp*, and *Jack with a lantern.*

Q. How is this phenomenon explained?

A. The late diſcoveries aſcribe it to inflammable air ariſing from the putrefaction and decompoſition of vegetable ſubſtances in water, which takes fire by means of the electricity of fogs, and by falling ſtars, which are alſo of an electric origin. In ſhort, poſitive and negative electricity in the air, with a proper quantity of moiſture to ſerve as a conductor, will account for theſe and other fiery phenomena.

Of Wind.

Q. What is wind?

A. A ſenſible agitation of the air, whereby a large quantity flows in a current out of one region into another.

Q. What are the cauſes of this agitation?

A. Local alterations in the ſtate of the air, by heat or cold. For, if the air be ſuddenly rarefied in any place, its ſpring is ſuddenly increaſed; hence, a wind will blow through the contiguous air, not acted on by the rarefied force: and, if the air be ſuddenly condenſed, its ſpring will be ſuddenly diminiſhed; and conſequently, a wind will blow through the condenſed air.

Q. How are the winds divided?

A. Into four principal ones, the north, ſouth, eaſt, and weſt, which take their name from the four cardinal points of the world.

Q. What is the nature of each?

A. The *north* wind is cold; becauſe it comes from the frigid zone, or countries remote from the influence of the ſun: the *ſouth* is warm; becauſe it comes from the torrid zone, or countries much hotter than ours: the *eaſt* is dry; becauſe it comes from the great continent of Aſia, where there are few rivers or ſeas: and the *weſt* is moiſt, becauſe it comes from the Atlantic ocean, where it imbibes a great quantity of vapour.

Q. Are the winds deemed beneficial?

A. Beſide their uſe in moving various machines, and their utility to navigation, they ſerve to purify and refreſh the air, to convey the heat or cold of one region to another, and to produce a circulation of vapours from the ocean to inland countries. But, though their effects in the whole may be of great benefit, their violence is ſometimes very detrimental. For,

When a violent or very ſudden alteration happens in any particular part of the atmoſphere, by means of a cloud or ſome electrical cauſe, that occaſions a ruſhing in of the air from all points, an impetuous wind is produced, turning rapidly every way, and ſweeping all round the place. This is called a *whirl-wind*. And,

When theſe cauſes are numerous and very violent, accompanied with thunder and lightning, the winds become ſo furious and terrible, that they overthrow houſes, root up trees, and deſtroy every thing in their courſe. This is denominated a *hurricane*.

Of Clouds.

Q. What are clouds?

A. A collection of condenſed vapour, ſuſpended in the atmoſphere.

Q. How are they formed?

A. From a congeries of watery particles, raiſed from the earth by the ſolar and ſubterraneous heat; which at their firſt riſe are too minute and ſeperated to be perceived; but meeting in their aſcent with a greater degree of cold, they are condenſed and their parts united, ſo as to reflect light and become viſible.

Q. At what height do you ſuppoſe the clouds to be ſuſpended?

A. From about a quarter of a mile to two miles; according to their ſpecific gravity, and to the elaſticity of the atmoſphere. They are frequently viſible below the tops of very high hills.

Q. Whence their various forms and colours?

A. Their figure reſults from their looſe texture, changing into any form according to the different currents of the air; and their colour is owing to their particular ſituation to the ſun, and the different reflexions of his light.

It appears from the obſervable motions of the clouds, that there are different currents in the air at the ſame time, and in the ſame quarter, under one another.

Of the Rainbow.

Q. What is a rainbow?

A. A meteor in form of a party-coloured arch, exhibited in a rainy atmoſphere, oppoſite to the ſun.

Q. Of what colours does it conſiſt?

A. They are, beginning from the under part, violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, red.

Q. How is the rainbow produced?

A. It is made by the rays of the ſun darting upon drops of falling rain, and from thence reflected to the eye of the ſpectator.

Q. I have ſometimes obſerved two bows, one above the other; how are they accounted for?

A. The interior and ſtronger one, is produced by one reflexion; the exterior and fainter, by two: when the latter is viſible, its colours lie in a contrary order to the other.

The doctrine of the rainbow is confirmed by an eaſy experiment; for upon hanging up a glaſs globe, full of water, in the ſun-ſhine, and viewing it in ſuch a poſition as that the rays, which come from the globe to the eye, may, with the ſun's rays, include an angle of about 42°, the ſpectator will ſee a *full* red colour in that ſide of the globe *oppoſite* the ſun; and if that angle be made a little leſs, by depreſſing the globe or raiſing the eye, the other colours, yellow, green, and blue, will appear ſucceſſively: but if the angle be made about 50°, there will appear a *faint* red colour in that ſide *toward* the ſun; and if the angle be made greater, the other colours will be ſeen in their regular order.

Of Hail.

Q. What is hail?

A. An aqueous concretion, generally round, but ſometimes angular, triangular, &c. according to the ſuddenneſs of its firſt formation, and the degrees of cold it paſſes through in its deſcent.

Q. How is it produced?

A. It is ſuppoſed to be formed in the higher regions of the air, where the cold is intenſe, and where the electric matter is very copious: for in theſe circumſtances, a great number of particles of water are brought near together, where they are frozen, and in their deſcent collect other particles; ſo that the denſity of the ſubſtance of the hailſtone decreaſes from the center; this being formed firſt in the upper regions, and the ſurface being collected in its falling through the lower.

Of Snow.

Q. Whence is ſnow produced?

A. It is formed in the middle region of the atmoſphere, of a vapour there congealed, its parts condenſed, its ſpecific gravity increaſed, and, accumulating other particles in its deſcent through a cold air, it returns to the earth in form of little white flakes.

Q. Why are thoſe flakes ſo light?

A. It is owing to the exceſs of the ſurface, in compariſon to the matter contained under it; as gold itſelf may be extended in ſurface till it will ride upon the leaſt breath of air.

Q. What is the cauſe of their whiteneſs?

A. The ſmall particles of ice that compoſe thoſe flakes being ſolid, tranſparent, and differently arranged, they reflect the light from every part.

Q. Of what benefit is ſnow to the earth?

A. It furniſhes a covering for corn and other vegetables, by which they are guarded from the intenſer cold of the air, eſpecially from cold piercing winds, and the internal heat of the earth is prevented from eſcaping; it alſo, in melting, moiſtens and pulverizes the ſoil, which had been bound up by the froſt, and thereby promotes vegetation.

Of Rain.

Q. What is rain?

A. A precipitated cloud, deſcending in form of drops of water; or ſnow diſſolved in paſſing through the lower and warmer region of the atmoſphere. Rain has therefore its origin in regions below thoſe of ſnow and hail.

Q. How do you account for the various ſizes of drops of rain?

A. In mountains, drops of rain, as well as flakes of ſnow, and hail-ſtones, are very ſmall; and all agree in this circumſtance, that the more intenſe is the electricity that forms them, the larger they are. Their bulk is alſo increaſed from the length of their deſcent through a humid atmoſphere, by attracting ſmall particles of vapour as they fall; for it is known, that a veſſel placed on the top of a high tower, will not collect ſo much rain as another, of the ſame dimenſions, ſet on the ground.

Q. What are the chief uſes of rain?

A. It moiſtens and ſoftens the earth, and thus fits it for affording nouriſhment to plants; by falling on mountains, it carries down with it many particles of looſe earth, which ſerve to fertilize the ſurrounding valleys; it purifies the air from noxious exhalations, which tend in their return to the earth, to meliorate the ſoil; it moderates the heat of the air; and is one means of ſupplying fountains and rivers.

Of Fog and Dew.

Q. What is fog?

A. Fog, or miſt, is a meteor, conſiſting of groſs vapours, floating near the ſurface of the earth.

Q. How is it formed?

A. By vapours raiſed from the earth, which meet, at their firſt entrance into the atmoſphere, with cold ſufficient to condenſe them conſiderably; their ſpecific gravity being hereby increaſed, their aſcent will be ſtopped, and they will either remain ſuſpended for ſome time, or return back in a kind of mizling rain.

When theſe vapours are very light and ſubtle, become condenſed before they arrive at any conſiderable height, and return back in imperceptible drops; it is then called *dew*.

Fogs are only low clouds, or clouds in the loweſt region of the air; and clouds are no other than fogs raiſed on high.

Of Earthquakes.

Q. What is an earthquake?

A. A tremendous agitation of ſome conſiderable part of the earth, attended with a noiſe like thunder,

der, and frequently with an eruption of wind or ſmoke, or elſe of water or fire; and is undoubtedly the greateſt and moſt formidable phenomenon of nature.

Q. Whence the cauſe of theſe terrible phenomena?

A. Thoſe of a ſuperficial kind may have an electric origin; for, when a part of the earth is in a highly electrified ſtate, the approach of a non-electric cloud will produce a ſudden diſcharge, and occaſion a violent commotion in the earth to many miles in compaſs. The principal agent of thoſe that are interior and more tremendous is ſubterraneous fire.

Q. Pleaſe to explain thoſe of ſubterraneous origin?

A. The earth abounds with ſubterraneous caverns, canals, and veins, ſome full of exhalations, and others full of water; and ſome parts replete with nitre, ſulphur, bitumen, &c. which produce fire: hence, it is eaſy to conceive the terrible effects which may be occaſioned from ſuch confined air or water, when acted upon and greatly rarefied by fire; eſpecially if it be conſidered, that the expanſive force of ſteam is 28 times greater than the force of gunpowder.

Volcanos, or burning mountains, that emit flame, aſhes, cinders, ſtones, liquid ſulphur, and other ſubſtances, had their origin from earthquakes.

There are many of them diſperſed in all the quarters of the world: the principal of thoſe in Europe, are, Etna, or Gibel, in Sicily, Veſuvius in Naples, and Hecla in Iceland. And was it not owing to thoſe vents for ſubterraneous fires, the effects of earthquakes would be more frequent and dreadful.

Of the Tides.

Q. What is meant by the tides?

A. Two periodical motions of the waters of the ſea, called the flux and reflux, or the flow and ebb.

Q. Pleaſe to explain theſe motions?

A. The ſea is obſerved to flow from the equator toward the north and ſouth pole, for about ſix hours; in which motion, or flux, the ſea gradually ſwells; ſo that, entering the mouths of rivers, it drives back the river waters toward their ſprings: after a continual flux of ſix hours, the ſea ſeems to reſt for about 12 minutes; and in this ſtate it is called *high-water*. When this pauſe is over, the ebb commences, and the ſea retires back again, from the poles to the equator, for ſix hours more; in which time, the waters ſinking, the rivers reſume their courſe toward the ſea: after this reflux, the ſea again reſts another 12 minutes; and in this ſtate it is called *low-water*.

Q. How are theſe phenomena accounted for?

A. They are occaſioned by the attraction of the moon, which extends to the earth in ſo powerful a manner, as to draw up the waters of the ocean in a heap immediately beneath the moon; while the waters on the oppoſite ſide the earth, being feebly attracted, are very light, and the neighbouring waters preſſing toward that place, they ſwell into a heap pointing to the oppoſite part of the heaven. Thus does the moon, in once going round the earth in 24 ¾ hours, produce two tides, or two flows and two ebbs.

The tides being cauſed by the moon, they muſt neceſſarily follow her apparent courſe from eaſt to weſt, beſide the other motions which produce each flux and reflux.

Metaphyſics.

Q. What is metaphyſics?

A. A branch of ſcience above or more ſublime than phyſics.

Q. In what do theſe two ſciences differ?

A. Phyſics treats of material or natural things, and judges of them from experience.

Metaphyſics is applied to the contemplation of God, angels, and immaterial or ſpiritual things, and judges of them only by abſtraction, and independent of material things.

JURISPRUDENCE.

Q. What is juriſprudence?

A. The ſcience of what is juſt and unjuſt; or the knowledge of the laws, rights, cuſtoms, ordinances, &c. neceſſary for the doing of juſtice.

Q. Whence is the word juriſprudence derived?

A. It is compounded of the Latin words *jus*, right, and *prudentia*, knowledge or ſkill.

Q. How are laws diſtinguiſhed?

A. Into the law of nature, law of nations, and civil law.

Q. What is the law of nature?

A. That which nature and reaſon have taught mankind; as the power it gives to parents over their children.

Q. In what conſiſts the law of nations?

A. In certain cuſtoms allowed of by all civilized nations againſt violating hoſpitality, or incroaching upon the privileges of ambaſſadors, &c. ſent by one prince to another.

Q. What is civil law?

A. The peculiar law of every nation, ordained to provide for the public utility and neceſſity of the people conſidered as a body corporate. When this reſpects a city or borough town, that enjoys particular privileges, it is called *municipal law*.

Q. Specify

Q. Specify the ſeveral kinds of laws now uſed in England?

A. They are, 1ſt, the *civil law*, before-mentioned; 2d, *common-law*, containing a ſummary of all the laws, rights, and privileges, in what is called Magna Charta, or great charter of Engliſh rights; 3d, *ſtatute law*, conſiſting of ſtatutes, acts, and ordinances of the king and parliament; 4th, *canon law*, a collection of conſtitutions, deciſions, and maxims, for the rule and meaſure of church-government; 5th, *martial law*, uſed in all military and maritime affairs; 6th, *foreſt law*, which relates to the regulations of foreſts and chaſes; to theſe may be added, 7th, the *law of cuſtom*, which is remarkable in ſome parts of England.

PHYSIC.

Q. What is phyſic?

A. Phyſic, or medicine, is the knowledge of thoſe things by whoſe application life is either preſerved healthy, or when diſordered, is reſtored to its priſtine healthineſs.

Q. How is the word phyſic derived?

A. From a Greek word (*phuſis*) ſignifying *nature*; becauſe medicine conſiſts, principally, in the obſervation of nature.

Q. What are the principal branches of this ſcience?

A. Anatomy, ſurgery, pharmacy, chemiſtry, and botany.

Q. Pleaſe to explain their ſeveral uſes?

A. *Anatomy*, is the diſſecting, or taking to pieces, the ſolid parts of the human body, in order to diſcover their ſtructure and economy, their office and uſe, and their concern in health or diſeaſes. It is not only of uſe in medicine, but alſo in painting, deſigning, ſtatuary, &c.

Surgery, or chirurgery, conſiſts in operations performed by the hand, for the cure of wounds, diſlocations, fractures, tumours, ulcers, and the like. It has the advantage of medicine, in the ſolidity of its foundation, the certainty of its operations, and the ſenſibility of its effects.

Pharmacy, teaches the choice, preparation, and mixture of medicines; and conſiſts in the knowledge and management of the ſeveral parts of the materia medica, now in the hands of the apothecaries.

Chemiſtry, is the art of reſolving mixed bodies into their component parts, in order to ſeparate the uſeleſs and ill, and collect and refine the good.

Botany, is the knowledge of plants, in all their ſtates and relations; and the virtues of their ſeveral parts, when uſed in medicine and other affairs of life.

RHETORIC.

Q. What is meant by rhetoric?

A. Rhetoric, or oratory, is the art of ſpeaking juſtly, methodically, floridly, and copiouſly, upon any ſubject, in order to touch the paſſions, and to perſuade.

Q. Whence is the word rhetoric derived?

A. From a Greek word [*retorike*] of the ſame ſignification.

Q. What are the requiſite qualifications to excell in this art?

A. A good orator muſt be eminent in invention, diſpoſition, elocution, memory, and pronunciation.

Q. Pleaſe to explain the purport of each?

A. Invention, is the finding out and chooſing ſuch arguments for the proving or illuſtrating the ſubject, as will move the paſſions, or conciliate the minds of the hearers.

Diſpoſition, is the act of diſtributing the arguments, invented or found out, into a proper order.

Elocution, is the chooſing and adapting of words, or ſentences, to the things, or ſentiments, to be expreſſed.

Memory, is the power of retaining every thing that is learnt, belonging to the ſubject, in order to exhibit them as occaſion requires.

Pronunciation, is the regulating and varying the voice and geſture agreeable to the matter and words; ſo as more effectually to perſuade and touch the hearers.

Q. How many parts has an oration?

A. Five; the exordium, narration, confirmation, confutation, and peroration.

Q. In what does each of them conſiſt?

A. The *exordium*, is the preamble, or beginning of the diſcourſe; ſerving to gain the good opinion of the hearers, to ſecure their attention, and to give them a general notion of the ſubject.

The *narration*, is a recital of the facts as they happened, or as they are ſuppoſed to have happened. It ought to be perſpicuous, probable, conciſe, and (on moſt ſubjects) entertaining.

The *confirmation*, is a ſtrengthening of the cauſe, in undertaking to prove, by laws, reaſons, authorities, and other arguments, the truth of the propoſitions advanced in the narration.

The *confutation*, is refelling and deſtroying the oppoſite arguments of the antagoniſt; by denying what is apparently falſe, detecting ſome flaw in the reaſoning, or ſhewing the invalidity of the proof. It ſhould be ſharp and lively.

The *peroration*, or *epilogue*, is a recapitulation of the principal arguments, ſummed up with new force and weight, in order to excite the feeling of hatred or pity. It ought to be vehement, paſſionate, and conciſe.

GRAMMAR.

Q. What is grammar?

A. The art of rightly expreſſing our thoughts by words, in diſcourſe or writing.

Q. Whence is the word grammar derived?

A. From a Greek word [*grammata*] which ſignifies *letters.*

Q. How is grammar divided?

A. Into four parts; etymology, orthography, ſyntax, and proſody.

Etymology, deduces and explains the origin, reaſon, and derivation of words, in order to arrive at their firſt and primary ſignification.

Orthography, teaches to write words juſtly, and with all the proper and neceſſary letters; it alſo includes the art of pronouncing them properly.

Syntax, is the conſtructing, or right ordering of words in a phraſe or ſentence, ſo as to make the meaning clear and diſtinct.

Proſody, treats of the true pronunciation of ſyllables, in reſpect of quantity and accent.

Q. What is meant by quantity and accent?

A. *Quantity* is the length of time taken up in pronouncing a ſyllable; and *accent*, the pronouncing it with a higher or lower tone of voice.

Q. How many kinds of words are there?

A. Nine; commonly called *parts of ſpeech.*

Q. What are their names?

A. The article, noun, pronoun, verb, participle, adverb, prepoſition, conjunction, and interjection.

Q. Is it neceſſary to ſtudy the grammar of our own country?

A. Moſt certainly, yes; for without a competent grammatical knowledge of our own language, we ſhould be ignorant of its beauties, and unable to expreſs ourſelves properly, correctly, or politely, on the moſt trifling occaſions.

Of Languages.

Q. What is language?

A. A ſet of words, or an aſſemblage of expreſſions, which chance or caprice has eſtabliſhed among a certain people, whereby to communicate their thoughts to each other.

Q. Whence the origin of language?

A. It is ſuppoſed to be of divine origin, and ſupernaturally communicated to the firſt man.

Q. From whence comes the diverſity of languages?

A. It is generally allowed to have taken its riſe from the confuſion at the building of the Tower of Babel.

Q. What language is the moſt ancient?

A. This point has been extremely controverted. The majority ſeem inclined to the Hebrew, deeming it the primitive language, and the ſource of all the reſt: the Syriac has the next greateſt number of advocates; but many ſupport the Greek; others maintain the Teutonic; and ſome prefer the Chineſe.

Q. What are the principal languages now uſed?

A. The Latin, Italian, Spaniſh, French, and Engliſh: and there is found a reſemblance between the genius of each people and the language they ſpeak.

Q. Pleaſe to explain this reſemblance.

A. The Romans, who ſeemed only born to command, had a language noble, nervous, and auguſt; and their deſcendants, the Italians, are ſunk into ſoftneſs and effeminacy, which is as viſible in their language, as in their manners. The language of the Spaniards is full of that gravity, and haughtineſs of air, which make the diſtinguiſhed character of that people. The French, who have great vivacity, have a language that runs extremely briſk and lively. And the Engliſh, who are naturally blunt, thoughtful, and of few words, have a language more conciſe and ſententious, though far from being deficient in reſpect of copiouſneſs.

Q. Who was the inventor of letters?

A. As there is no authentic relation of any alphabetic character before the flood, the greater number of writers have contented themſelves with tracing their origin to Moſes, ſuppoſed to be the ſame with the Egyptian Thoth or Hermes.

Q. Who compoſed that orderly arrangement of the letters called the alphabet?

A. It is generally aſcribed to Cadmus, king of Thebes: he firſt brought letters from Phœnicia into Greece, about 1045 years before Chriſt; whence, in the following ages, they ſpread over the reſt of Europe.

POETRY.

Q. What is poetry?

A. The art of compoſing poems, or pieces in verſe.

Q. How many kinds of poetry are there?

A. Two; epic and dramatic.

Q. Pleaſe to deſcribe them both?

A. An *epic poem* is a compoſition in heroic verſe, relating ſome important action, or extraordinary deſign. Such are, the Iliad, of Homer; the Eneid, of Virgil; the Paradiſe Loſt, of Milton; &c.

A *dramatic poem* conſiſts in action, is divided into acts, and repreſented by actors. Tragedies and comedies are of this ſort.

Q. Are there not other kinds of poetry?

A: The lower ſorts of poetry are, the ode, elegy, ſatire, epigram, ſonnet, &c. Thoſe of the loweſt order are, the acroſtic, enigma, rebus, echo, &c.

Q. How is this art to be attained?

A. The rules of poetry are taught by art, and acquired by ſtudy; but the force and elevation of thought, which alone makes the poetry of any value, muſt be derived from nature.

MUSIC.

Q. What is muſic?

A. The art of diſpoſing and conducting ſounds, under certain meaſures, as that they may affect the ſenſes, in an agreeable manner.

Q. Whence is the word muſic derived?

A. It is ſuppoſed to be originally formed from the Latin *muſa*, *muſe*; the Muſes being ſuppoſed to be the inventors thereof.

Q. How is muſic divided?

A. Into two parts, ſpeculative and practical: The *ſpeculative*, is the knowledge of muſic, and the method of producing ſounds, in ſuch relations of tune and time, as ſhall be agreeable in conſonance, or ſucceſſion, or both. The *practical*, is that which ſhews how grave and acute ſounds, in the relation they bear to muſic, may be ordered, and variouſly put together, ſo as to render them pleaſing: this is called *compoſition*.

Some add a third branch, the *inſtrumental*, or the knowledge of inſtruments; but, as this depends altogether on the application or expreſſion of the ſpeculative part, it cannot come regularly under the definition.

Q. Had not muſic its origin in early times?

A. It appears to have been one of the moſt ancient of arts; and, of all others, vocal muſic muſt undoubtedly have been the firſt kind: for man had not only the various tones of his own voice to make his obſervations on, before any other art or inſtrument was found out, but had the various natural ſtrains of birds to give him occaſion to improve his own voice, and the modulations of ſounds it was able to expreſs.

Q. From whence are the various muſical inſtruments ſuppoſed to have been invented?

A. The firſt invention of wind inſtruments, is aſcribed to the obſervation of the wind whiſtling in the hollow reeds. As for other kinds of inſtruments, there were ſo many occaſions for uſing cords or ſtrings, that men could not be long in obſerving their various ſounds; which might give riſe to ſtringed inſtruments: and for the pulſatile inſtruments, as drums and cymbals, they might ariſe from the obſervation of the naturally hollow noiſe of concave bodies.

Q. Is not muſic in great repute?

A. It has ever been in the higheſt eſteem in all ages, and among all people; nor could authors expreſs their opinion of it ſtrongly enough, but by inculcating, that it was uſed in heaven, and was one of the principal entertainments of the gods, and the ſouls of the bleſſed.

Q. What are the effects of muſic?

A. It not only delightfully recreates the mind, and gives it new vigour for buſineſs, but by it diſeaſes are ſaid to have been cured, ſeditions quelled, paſſions raiſed and calmed, and even madneſs occaſioned.

MATHEMATICS.

Q. What is mathematics?

A. A ſcience that contemplates whatever is capable of being numbered or meaſured.

Q. What is the etymology of the word?

A. It is derived from the Greek, and the original word [*matheſis*] ſignifies *diſcipline*, or *ſcience*; for this had the ſtart of all other ſciences, and the reſt took their common name from it.

Q. How is mathematics divided?

A. Into pure and mixed: the pure conſiders quantity abſtractedly, and without any relation to matter or bodies; the mixed is interwoven with phyſical conſiderations.

Q. Of what uſe is this ſcience?

A. It opens and extends our ideas, ſtrengthens and improves our underſtandings, fixes our attention, and by teaching a habit of juſt reaſoning, prepares us for all other kinds of ſtudies and important employments of life.

Q. What are its principal branches?

A. Arithmetic, geometry, mechanics, optics, aſtronomy, geography, chronology, and architecture.

Arithmetic.

Q. What is arithmetic?

A. The art of computing by numbers, with expedition and eaſe.

Q. What are its principal rules?

A. Addition, ſubtraction, multiplication, and diviſion; and all the other rules or operations ariſe only from the different application of them.

Q. Pleaſe to explain the uſe of each?

A. Addition, teaches to find the amount of many numbers ſeverally added together, to know their ſum or total.

Subtraction, teaches to deduct or take a leſs number from a greater, to learn the preciſe difference.

Multiplication, teaches to increaſe any number, or to find the ſum of any number added to itſelf, as often as there are units in another; ſo that it is a compendious kind of addition.

Diviſion, teaches to find how often a leſs number is contained in a greater, or to divide any greater number into as many parts as there are units in the leſs; being a compendious method of ſubtraction.

Q. What are the other rules of arithmetic?

A. Reduction, rule of three, practice, intereſt, fellowſhip, extraction of roots, &c. what relates to annuities, penſions, &c. with every thing concerning commerce and book-keeping.

Q. To whom is this art neceſſary?

A. To every perſon. It forms the mind, and diſpoſes it to reaſon juſtly on all other ſciences, and teaches men to diſpoſe their affairs in good order: in ſhort, it is the ſoul of trade, and the mother of all the ſciences.

Geometry.

Q. What is geometry?

A. A ſcience teaching the menſuration of quantity, extenſion, or magnitude; that is, of lines, ſurfaces, or ſolids.

The word is from the Greek, which ſignifies *to meaſure the earth*. It had its riſe among the Egyptians,

tians, who were, in a manner, compelled to invent it, to remedy the diſorders occaſioned by the annual inundations of the river Nile, which bore away the bounds and land-marks of their eſtates.

Q. What is a line?

A. A quantity extended in length only, without either breadth or thickneſs. It is ſuppoſed to be formed by the motion of a point; and is to be conceived as the limit of a ſurface, and not as a part of that ſurface, however ſmall.

Q. What is a ſurface?

A. A ſurface, or ſuperficies, is a magnitude extended in length and breadth, but without thickneſs or depth. It is produced by the motion of a line; and is chiefly conſidered as the external part of a ſolid.

Q. What is a ſolid?

A. A magnitude endued with three dimenſions, or extended in length, breadth, and depth. It is terminated, or contained, under one or more planes or ſurfaces, as a ſurface is under one or more lines.

Q. How is geometry divided?

A. Into four principal branches; altimetry, longimetry, planimetry, and ſtereometry.

Q. Explain the purport of each?

A. *Altimetry*, includes the meaſuring of lines, either in reſpect of height, or depth, whether acceſſible or inacceſſible.

Longimetry, is the art of meaſuring lengths and diſtances, both acceſſible, as roads, &c. and inacceſſible, as arms of the ſea, &c.

Planimetry, teaches the menſuration of planes or ſurfaces, which is performed by ſquare meaſures; as ſquare inches, ſquare feet, &c. It includes *ſurveying*, or the art of meaſuring land; by taking the dimenſions, laying down the ſame in a map or draught, and finding the content or area thereof.

Stereometry, is the menſuration of all kinds of ſolid bodies by cubic meaſures; as cubic inches, cubic feet, &c. This includes *gauging*, or the art of finding the contents of any veſſel, or the quantity of liquid contained therein.

Mechanics.

Q. What is mechanics?

A. A ſcience which conſiders motion, and moving bodies, their nature and laws; with the effects of mechanic powers, and of their various combinations, in the conſtruction of machines or engines.

That part of mechanics which conſiders the motion of bodies ariſing from weight or gravity, is generally called *ſtatics*.

Q. What is meant by mechanic powers?

A. Thoſe machines which are uſed for raiſing greater weights, or overcoming greater reſiſtances, than could be effected by natural ſtrength without them; the power or ſtrength being applied to one part of the machine, and another part of the machine applied to the weight or reſiſtance.

Q. How many mechanic powers are there?

A. Six; the lever, the wheel and axle, the pulley, the inclined plane, the wedge, and the ſcrew.

Q. Pleaſe to deſcribe each of them.

A. The *lever* is an inflexible bar, turning on a ſupporting prop as its center of motion. There are three kinds: 1, When the prop is between the weight and the power; ſuch are iron crows, pincers, ſciſſars, and the like: 2, When the weight is between the prop and the power; of this ſort are the oars of a boat, and knives that are fixed at the point: 3, When the power is between the weight and the prop; of this ſort are the muſcular motions of animals, and the wheels of clocks and watches.

The *wheel and axle*, is contrived chiefly for the raiſing of weights to conſiderable heights; the power being applied to the wheel, and the weight drawn up by a rope winding round the axle.

The *pulley*, is a little wheel, or rundle, having a channel around it, and turning on an axis; and a rope which ſlides in its channel, has the power applied at one end and the weight at the other. An aſſemblage of theſe is called a ſyſtem of pullies: ſome of which are in a block, which is fixed; and others in a block which is moveable, and riſes with the weight.

An *inclined plane*, is like the chamfered part of an edge tool, which is ground down only on one ſide to the edge.

A *wedge*, in the common form, is like two inclined planes, joined together at their baſes; and the thickneſs of theſe planes (oppoſite their ſharp edges) make the back of the wedge, to which the power of the hammer is applied in cleaving of wood.

The *ſcrew*, may be conſidered as an inclined plane, wrapped round a cylinder, which is turned by a winch or lever: it is of great efficacy in raiſing weights, or in preſſing bodies cloſely together.

Of theſe ſix ſimple machines, all the moſt compound engines in the world conſiſt. As the ſcrew includes the inclined plane, and two inclined planes make a wedge, we have all the mechanical powers combined together in a common *jack*, if it be turned by the fly; for then we have alſo the lever, the wheel and axle, and the pullies.

Optics.

Q. What is optics?

A. A ſcience explaining the nature and laws of viſion, whether natural, as performed by the eye, or artificial, as effected by inſtruments.

Q. How is viſion produced?

A. Viſion, or the act of ſeeing by the eye, is performed by rays of light reflected from an object received in at the pupil, refracted in their paſſage, through the coats and humours, to the retina, and being hence conveyed, by the optic nerve, to the common ſenſory in the brain, the luminous object is perceived by the mind.

Q. What are the other benefits of this ſcience?

A. Beſide explaining the manner wherein viſion is performed in the eye, it treats of ſight in the general, explains the ſeveral modifications which the rays of light undergo in the eye, and why ſome can only ſee near and others at a diſtance; ſhews why objects appear ſometimes greater and ſometimes ſmaller, ſometimes diſtinct and ſometimes confuſed, ſometimes near and ſometimes remote; and accounts for the theory of light, colours, and many other phyſical phenomena, otherwiſe inexplicable.

Aſtronomy.

Q. What is aſtronomy?

A. A mixed mathematical ſcience; teaching the knowledge of the celeſtial bodies, their magnitudes, motions, diſtances, periods, eclipſes, and order.

Q. What is the uſe of this ſcience?

A. By knowledge derived from aſtronomy, not only the bulk of the earth is diſcovered, the ſituation of countries aſcertained, trade and commerce carried on to the remoteſt parts of the world, and its various products diſtributed for the health and comfort of mankind; but our very faculties are enlarged with the grandeur of the ideas it conveys, our minds exalted above the low contracted prejudices of the vulgar, and our underſtandings convinced of the exiſtence, power, and goodneſs of the Supreme Being, who carries on the wonderful harmony and connection obſervable throughout the ſolar ſyſtem.

Of the Solar Syſtem.

Q. What is underſtood by the ſolar ſyſtem?

A. The ſun, with the planets and comets which move round him as their center.

Q. Give ſome particulars about the ſun?

A. The ſun, an immenſe globe of fire, is fixed in the center of the ſyſtem, having a central motion only about his own axis in 25 days 6 hours, as is evident by obſerving the black ſpots ſeen on his diſc or ſurface. He is about 763,000 miles in diameter; is near one million of times larger than the earth; and by his rotation diſpenſes light, heat, and motion, to all the planets revolving round him.

Q. How many planets revolve round the ſun?

A. There are ſeven primary or principal planets, and twelve ſecondary planets, or ſatellites, viz. Mercury, Venus, the Earth and its ſatellite the

Moon, Mars, Jupiter and his four ſatellites, Saturn and his five ſatellites, and the Georgian and its two ſatellites. Each primary planet deſcribes a large orbit, nearly circular, round the middle or equatorial parts of the Sun: and all the orbits are made the ſame way, from weſt to eaſt. All the planets are opaque ſpherical bodies, having no proper light of their own, but ſhine by the reflected light which they receive from the Sun; for only that ſide of them is illuminated, which is turned toward him; and, beſide the revolution in their orbits, they have a central or rotatory motion on their axes.

The revolution of a planet round the ſun, is called the *annual* or *yearly motion*; becauſe it has all the alterations of the ſeaſons, and varieties of the year, complete in that revolution: and the rotation of a planet round its axis, is called the *diurnal* or *daily motion*; becauſe, by this means, each part of its ſurface is carried ſucceſſively toward and from the Sun, which illuminates that half next him, making it day; while the other remaining in darkneſs, muſt conſtitute night.

Q. What particulars have you to mention concerning each of the planets?

A. Mercury is the neareſt planet to the Sun, and goes round him in 87 days 23 hours of our time nearly; which is the length of his year: but being ſeldom ſeen, on account of his proximity to the Sun, and no ſpots appearing on his ſurface, the time of his rotation on his axis, or the length of his days, is ſtill unknown. His diſtance from the Sun is computed to be 37 millions of miles; his diameter 3200; and in his courſe round the Sun, he moves at the rate of 105,000 miles every hour.

Venus, the next planet in order, is computed to be 68 millions of miles from the Sun, and by moving at the rate of 76,000 miles every hour in her orbit, ſhe completes her annual revolution in 224 days 17 hours. Her diameter is 7700 miles, and her diurnal rotation is performed in 23 hours 22 minutes. When ſhe appears to the weſt of the Sun, ſhe riſes before him, and is called the Morning Star; and when to the eaſt of the Sun, ſhe ſhines after he is ſet, and is then called the Evening Star. This planet and Mercury, during the whole of their revolutions, appear, through a teleſcope, to have all the various ſhapes and appearances of the Moon.

The *Earth* is the next planet above Venus, at the diſtance of 95 millions of miles from the Sun. It completes its annual circuit in 365 days 5 hours 49 minutes, moving at the rate of 58,000 miles every hour; which motion, though 120 times ſwifter than that of a cannon-ball, is little more than half the velocity of Mercury in his orbit. Its diameter is 7970 miles; and by turning round its axis every 24 hours from weſt to eaſt, it cauſes an apparent diurnal motion of all the heave-

nly bodies from eaſt to weſt. This planet is
tended by a ſatellite, or ſecondary planet, called
e Moon; which reſpects the Earth for the center
f her motion, going round it from change to
hange in 29 days 12 hours 44 minutes, and round
e Sun with it every year. Her diameter is
180, and her diſtance from the Earth 240,000
iles: ſhe goes round her orbit in 27 days 7 hours
3 minutes, moving about 2290 miles every hour;
d turns round her axis exactly in the time that
e goes round the Earth, which is the reaſon
hy the ſame face is always preſented to our
ew.

Mars is the next in order, being the firſt above
e orbit of the Earth, at the diſtance of 144 mil-
ons of miles from the Sun. He moves in his
bit at the rate of 55,000 miles every hour, and
mpletes his revolution in 1 year 321 days 23
ours, which is the length of his year. His dia-
eter is 4200 miles; and his diurnal rotation is
rformed in 24 hours 39 minutes. He ſometimes
ppears gibbous, but never horned, like the Moon,
hich ſhews that his orbit circumſcribes that of
e Earth.

Jupiter, the largeſt of all the planets, is at the
iſtance of 490 millions of miles from the Sun;
d by going at the rate of 29,000 miles every
our in his orbit, finiſhes his annual revolution in
1 years 314 days 12 hours. His diameter is

computed to be 89,000 miles; and by a prodigious rapid motion on his axis, he performs his diurnal rotation in 9 hours 56 minutes. The body of this planet is ſurrounded by ſeveral parallel faint ſubſtances, called Belts; and he is attended by four ſatellites, which revolve round him and enlighten him by night, as the Moon does the Earth.

Saturn is the next in the ſyſtem, at about 900 millions of miles from the Sun; and, travelling at the rate of 22,000 miles every hour, performs his annual circuit in 29 years 167 days 5 hours. His diameter is computed to be 79,000 miles; but, having no viſible ſpots on his body, the time of his diurnal rotation has not yet been diſcovered. This planet is ſurrounded by a thin broad ring, as an artificial globe is by a horizon; its breadth is about 21,000 miles, which is equal to its diſtance from Saturn on all ſides. He has alſo five ſatellites, which go round him on the outſide of his ring, and nearly in the ſame plane with it.

The *Georgian* is the remoteſt of all the planets, and was diſcovered to belong to this ſyſtem, in 1781, by Mr. Herſchell, of Bath. Its diſtance from the Sun is about 1800 millions of miles; its magnitude about 90 times greater than that of the Earth; and it revolves round the Sun in about 83 years. Two ſatellites, attendant upon it, have ſince been diſcovered.

Q. Can you form any meaſure to ſhew the proportional bulks of the planets?

A. Suppoſing a globe of 24 inches diameter to be the ſize of the Sun, the proportional diameter of Mercury would be about 1-eighth of an inch, of Venus, 1-fifth; of the Earth, 1-fourth; of Mars, 1-ſixth; of Jupiter, 2 inches 1-half; of Saturn, 1 inch 9-tenths; and of the Georgian, 1 inch 1-tenth.

Q. What might be the diſtances of the planets from the Sun, according to theſe proportions of their bulk?

A. Mercury would be about 32 yards from the center of the Sun, Venus 60 yards, the Earth 82, Mars 126, Jupiter 430, Saturn 788, and the Georgian 1570 yards. In this proportion the Moon's diſtance from the center of the Earth would be only 7 inches and a half.

Q. Can you aſſiſt the imagination in forming an idea of the vaſt diſtances the planets are from the Sun?

A. Suppoſe, that a body projected from the Sun ſhould continue to fly with the ſwiftneſs of a cannon ball, which is 480 miles in a hour; this body would reach the orbit of Mercury, in 8 years 290 days; of Venus, in 16 years 59 days; of the Earth, in 22 years 211 days; of Mars, in 34 years 82 days; of Jupiter, 116 years 166 days; of Saturn, 213 years 329 days; and of the Georgian, in 427 years 290 days.

Q. What are the comets belonging to this ſyſtem?

A. They are ſolid opaque globular bodies, with long tranſparent trains or tails, moving in very elliptical orbits round the Sun, and in all ſorts of directions. They become viſible to us only through the ſmall parts of their courſe near the Sun, and remain loſt to us through their immenſe journeys beyond the orbit of the moſt diſtant planet; ſo that their number and periods cannot be eaſily determined.

Q. How is their tails accounted for?

A. They ſeem to be owing to ſome luminous matter in their atmoſphere, which is eaſily excited by the Sun's heat, and thrown off in fiery vapours, always toward the parts oppoſite to the Sun.

Q. What is an eclipſe?

A. A privation of light in any of the heavenly bodies, cauſed by ſome other coming between the Sun and that body. There are various kinds of eclipſes; but thoſe of the Sun and Moon are moſt remarkable.

Q. How are they cauſed?

A. An eclipſe of the Sun (or properly of the Earth) is cauſed by the Moon, as ſhe revolves in her orbit, paſſing between the Sun and the Earth, and by that means intercepting his light from us.

This can never happen but at the New Moon, and the eclipſe always begins at the weſt ſide of the Sun.—An eclipſe of the Moon is cauſed by the interpoſition of the Earth between the Sun and the Moon: this can only happen at the Full Moon; for the Earth, being then exactly between the Sun and the Moon, will caſt its ſhadow upon the Moon. This eclipſe always begins on the eaſt ſide of the Moon.

Q. Are the planets ever eclipſed?

A. The bulk of the Sun, and the diſtances of the planets, being ſo great, the primary planets can never eclipſe one another; but a primary can eclipſe its ſecondary, or be eclipſed by it; and this is frequently the caſe with Jupiter and his ſatellites.

Of the Fixed Stars.

Q. What is meant by fixed ſtars?

A. The ſtars are ſaid to be fixed, becauſe they have been generally obſerved to retain the ſame ſituations with reſpect to each other. They are ſuppoſed to be of the ſame nature and magnitude with the Sun; ſhining with their own native luſtre, and only diminiſhed in appearance by their immenſe diſtance from us.

Q. How far is their diſtance?

A. The neareſt is computed to be above 32 million of million of miles from us, which is further than a cannon-ball would fly in 7 million of years: and it is very probable that they are ſituate as far from one another; for there is no viſible alteration in their magnitudes, ſituations, and diſtances when viewed from different parts of the Earth's orbit; conſequently, the orbit of the Earth, which is 162 million of miles in diameter, is only a point in compariſon to their diſtance. Hence it is eaſy to prove, that the Sun, ſeen from ſuch a diſtance, would appear no bigger than a ſtar; and that the ſurrounding ſyſtem of planets and comets muſt be inviſible from the neareſt fixed ſtar. From all this it is highly probable that each ſtar is a ſun to a ſyſtem of planets, which, at different diſtances and in different periods, perform their revolutions round it, though unſeen by us with our beſt teleſcopes.

Q. What is the number of the ſtars?

A. Their real number can never be known; for as the power of our teleſcopes are increaſed, a greater number of them is diſcovered. The Britiſh catalogue, which includes a great many that cannot be ſeen without the help of a teleſcope, contains about 3000 only, in both hemiſpheres; and of this number, in the cleareſt night, the naked eye cannot diſcover above 1000 in either hemiſphere.

There is a remarkable track round the heavens, called the *milky way* from its peculiar whiteneſs, which is ſingle in ſome parts, in others double, and was formerly thought to be formed by an infinite number of very ſmall ſtars; but the teleſcope ſhews it to be otherwiſe, and therefore its whiteneſs muſt be owing to ſome other cauſe.

Q. As the ſtars are fixed, what is the cauſe of their apparent motions?

A. Their riſing and ſetting, is owing to the rotation of the Earth on its axis toward the eaſt; and our ſeeing different ſtars, at different ſeaſons of the year, is owing to the revolution of the Earth in its orbit round the Sun.

Geography.

Q. What is geography?

A. A mixed mathematical ſcience, which inſtructs us in the doctrine or knowledge of the Earth, as it ſtands divided into land and water, for both theſe together conſtitute our globe.

A. Is the ſtudy of geography neceſſary?

A. This ſcience is not only curious and entertaining, but of the greateſt uſe. It opens and enlarges the ideas; gives a true notion of the various ſituations of countries, with their rivers, mountains, &c.; and is of ſuch conſequence in hiſtory, that nothing can be underſtood with juſtneſs and propriety without it.

Q. How is the Earth proved to be globular?

A. It is demonſtrated to be a round body, from the obſervations of perſons ſtanding on ſhore and viewing a ſhip ſailing from port; they gradually firſt loſe ſight of the bottom of the veſſel, then the ſails diſappear, and at laſt the flags on the top of the maſts: and its orbicular ſhape is alſo confirmed by the many voyages which have been made round it. The unevenneſs of the ſurface on land, ariſing from hills and vales, can be no material objection to its rotundity; ſince the higheſt mountains bear no more proportion to the whole ſurface of the Earth, than the unevenneſs of the rind of an orange to the roundneſs of its figure.

Q. How is the land divided?

A. Into four principal parts, or quarters, called Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; and theſe are ſubdivided into continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſſes, and promontories or capes.

A *continent* is a great extent of land, comprehending ſeveral regions and kingdoms, without an entire ſeperation of its parts by water.

An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, entirely ſurrounded by water.

A *peninſula* is a tract of land encompaſſed by water except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent.

An *iſthmus* is a little neck of land which joins a peninſula to the continent.

A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*.

Q. How is the water divided?

A. Into oceans, ſeas, lakes, gulphs, ſtraits, and bays or creeks.

The *ocean* is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any ſeperation of its parts by land, and it encompaſſes the whole earth; but it is generally divided into three extenſive oceans, called the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Ocean.

A *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land.

A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land.

A *gulph* is a part of the ocean running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it except at a narrow paſſage whereby it communicates with the ocean: if a gulph be very large, it is called an *inland ſea.*

A *ſtrait* is a part of the ocean reſtrained between two ſhores, and is the paſſage which joins a gulph and ſea to each other or to the ocean.

A *bay* is an arm of the ſea, larger in the middle than at its entrance, being a kind of leſſer gulph; and when very ſmall it is called a *creek.*

Q. Has not theſe diviſions of land and water ſome reſemblance to each other?

A. Yes: a continent reſembles that of the ocean; an iſland encompaſſed with water, reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land; a peninſula of land, is like a gulph or inland ſea; an iſthmus, whereby two countries are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another; and a promontory or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of ſea.

Q. What is meant by the Old and New World?

A. Europe, Aſia and Africa, forming one large continent, are generally called the Old World, becauſe they were known to the ancients; and America, which is another continent, is called the New World, becauſe diſcovered ſo lately as the year 1492.

Q. Who was the diſcoverer?

A. Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, ſent by Ferdinand king of Spain; through the intereſt of queen Iſabella, who raiſed money upon her jewels to defray the expence of his expedition.

Q. Why then is it called America?

A. Becauſe Americus Veſputius, being ſent afterward, diſcovered a greater part of the continent; and being a man of addreſs, he obtained the honour of giving his name to half the globe.

Q. What is underſtood by the Eaſt and Weſt Indies?

A. The Eaſt Indies, comprehends the Aſiatic iſlands ſituated between the Indian and Pacific Oceans; and the Weſt Indies, the iſlands in the Atlantic Ocean between the two continents of North and South America.

Of Europe.

Q. What are the boundaries of Europe?

A. It is bounded on the north by the Icy Sea; on the eaſt, by Ruſſia in Aſia, the Black Sea, and Archipelago; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeperates it from America; being 3000 miles long, and 2500 broad. It is the leaſt quarter, but of the moſt renown for the temperature of the air; the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil; ſtudy of the arts and ſciences; but above all, for the eſtabliſhment of the chriſtian religion.

Q. How is Europe divided?

A. It is divided into many kingdoms and ſtates, whoſe names, extent in miles, and chief cities are as under.

	Kingdoms.	*Length.*	*Breadth.*	*Chief Cities.*
British Empire.	England	360	300	London
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh
	Ireland	300	150	Dublin
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburgh
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw
	Pruſſia	400	160	Berlin
	Germany	600	500	Vienna
Netherlands.	Holland	160	100	Amſterdam
	Flanders	180	150	Bruſſels
	France	600	500	Paris
	Spain	700	500	Madrid
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Zurich

Italy.	Lombardy, conſiſting of ſeveral ſmall ſtates *.			
	Popedom	240	150	Rome.
	Naples	270	180	Naples.
	Hungary	300	200	Buda
Turkey.	Danub. Prov.	600	420	Conſtantinople
	Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa
	Greece	400	240	Athens

The Europeans in general are well made, and tolerably fair, except in Spain, where they begin to be ſwarthy: the Spaniards and Hungarians wear whiſkers; and the Turks long beards.

Q. What are the commodities of theſe countries?—

A. In the north parts are pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, deals, maſts, furs, iron, coal, and tin. In the middle, corn, cyder, hops, ſalt, lace, lawn, cambric, woollen and linen cloth, leather, clocks, watches, hardware, toys, paper, hats, gloves, and glaſs. In the ſouth, wine, allom, amber, rice, raiſins, oranges, lemons, marble, cotton, velvet, and mohair.

Q. What are the principal iſlands in this quarter of the globe?

A. Beſide Great Britain and Ireland, included above in the Britiſh Empire, to the north of them is Iceland: in the Baltic, Zealand, Gothland,

---

* Theſe are Piedmont, Montferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuſcany, &c. and their chief towns are Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.

Funen; and in the Mediterranean, Yvica, Majorca, Minorca, Corſica, Sardinia, Sicily, Candia.

Q. What are the chief mountains?

A. The Dolphrins hills, between Sweden and Norway; the Hyperboræan mountains, in Ruſſia; the Cheviot hills, between England and Scotland; the Pyrenees, between Spain and France; the Alps, between Italy and Germany; and the Appenine, which run through Italy from north to ſouth: beſide theſe are Etna or Gibel, in Sicily; Veſuvius, near Naples; and Hecla, in Iceland, which are volcanic or burning mountains.

Q. Which are the moſt noted rivers?

A. The Danube, which runs through Germany, Hungary and Turkey; the Rhine, Elbe, and Oder, in Germany; Loire, Rhone, and Seine, in France; Douro, and Tajo, in Portugal; Guadiana, Turio, and Ebro, in Spain; Tiber, and Po, in Italy; Wolga, and Don, in Ruſſia; Thames, Severn, and Trent, in England; Forth, in Scotland; and Shannon, in Ireland.

Of Aſia.

Q. What are the boundaries of Aſia?

A. The Frozen or Icy Sea on the north; on the weſt it is ſeperated from Africa by the Red Sea, the Iſthmus of Suez, and the Levant or Mediterranean; and from Europe by the Archipelago, Sea of Marmora, Black Sea, Sea of Aſaph, the river

Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby: on the eaſt it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, which ſeperates it from America; and on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean. It is about 4800 miles long, and 4400 broad, and deemed the principal quarter of the globe.

Q. Why does this quarter obtain the preference?

A. Becauſe it was in Aſia, according to the ſacred annals, that the Garden of Eden was planted, and our firſt parents created; here once ſtood the famous Tower of Babel, the magnificent Temple of Solomon, and the renowned cities of Sodom, Gomorrah, Nineveh, Babylon, Troy, &c. In this country our Saviour was born, and compleated the great work of our redemption; in ſhort, it was the theatre of almoſt every action recorded in the ſcriptures.

Q. How is Aſia divided?

A. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow.

	Nations.	*Length.*	*Breadth.*	*Chief Towns.*
Tartary.	Ruſſian	The bounds of each are undetermined, the whole together is about		Tobolſkoi
	Chineſe			Chynian
	Mogulean			Tibet
	Independant	4000	2400	Samercand
	China	1440	1000	Pekin
	Moguls	2000	1500	Delhi
	India	1300	1100	Siam, Pegu
	Perſia	1600	1200	Iſpahan

Arabia

Turkey.	Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca
	Syria	270	160	Aleppo
	Holy Land	210	90	Jeruſalem
	Natolia	750	390	Burſa, Smyrna
	Meſopotamia	240	210	Diarbeck
	Chaldea	420	240	Bagdad
	Armenia	360	300	Erzerum
	Georgia	240	180	Teflis
	Aſſyria	210	205	Scherazer

The Turks, Perſians, Moguls, and Chineſe, are of good ſhape and complexion. The Indians are tawney, and features coarſe. The Tartars, Chineſe, and Indians pull their beards up by the root.

Q. In what does the trade of theſe nations conſiſt?

A. In the parts of Tartary are ſables, martins, furs, iron, rhubarb, muſk, &c. In other parts, ſilk, cotton, carpets, tapeſtry, mohair, cinnamon, aloes, myrrh, camphire, manna, ſpices, nutmegs, coffee, tea, drugs, gold duſt, quickſilver, diamonds, porcelain, and lacker and japan ware.

Q. What are the iſlands of Aſia?

A. They are innumerable. The principal one in ſize (nearly as large as all Europe) is New Holland, ſurrounded by the Indian and Pacific Ocean: the others of moſt note are Borneo, Celebes, Sumatra, Java, Ceylon, in the Indian Ocean; Japan, Formoſa, Luconia, Mindanas, in the Pacific Ocean; and Cyprus, in the Levant or Mediterranean Sea.

Q. Are there any remarkable mountains in this quarter?

A. The chief mountains are Ararat, near the Caſpian Sea, where the ark reſted after the flood; Horeb and Sinai, in Arabia; Lebanon, in the Holy Land; Imaus, in Tartary; Caucaſus, between the Black Sea and the Caſpian; Naugracut, in Tibet; and Taurus, running from eaſt to weſt of all Aſia.

Q. Which are the principal rivers?

A. The Tigris and Euphrates, between Arabia and Perſia; Tobol and Oby, in Tartary; Indus, in the Mogul's empire; Ganges, in India; and the Hoambo, and Tay, in China.

On the north of China runs a vaſt brick wall, ſuppoſed to extend 1500 miles in length, is from 20 to 25 feet high, and broad enough for ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe; it was built 1800 years ago, and at this time is little decayed.

Of Africa.

Q. How is Africa bounded?

A. On the north by the Mediterranean, which ſeperates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Aſia; and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean which ſeperates it from America: ſo that it has only three ſides, bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part, and the apex or top the Cape of Good Hope; and is entirely ſurrounded by water, except the above iſthmus, about 60 miles over, which joins it to Aſia, between the Mediterranean and Red Sea. Its utmoſt length from north to ſouth is 4300 miles, and the broadeſt part 3500.

Q. What are the countries of Africa?

A. This quarter, except along the coaſts, is imperfectly known to the Europeans, but according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, it may be divided as under.

	Nations.	*Length.*	*Breadth.*	*Chief Towns.*
Barbary.	Morocco	500	480	Fez
	Algiers	600	400	Algiers
	Tunis	400	250	Tunis
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli
	Barca	400	300	Tolemeta
	Egypt	600	250	Cairo
	Bilidulgerid	2500	350	Dara
	Zaara	2400	660	Tegeſſa
	Negroland	2200	840	Madinga
	Guinea	1800	360	Benin
Upper Ethiopia.	Nubia	940	600	Nubia
	Abyſſinia	900	800	Gondar
	Abex	540	130	Doncala
	Lower Ethiopia, the middle part, little known.			
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	Loango
	Congo	540	420	St. Salvador
	Angola	360	250	Loando
	Benguela	430	180	Benguela
	Mataman	450	240	No Town

Ajan

Ajan	900	300	Brava
Zanguebar	1400	350	Melinda
Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa
Monemugi	900	660	Chicova
Sofola	480	300	Sofola
Terra de Natal	600	350	No Town
Caffaria Hottentots	780	660	Cape Town.

In Egypt, Bilidulgerid, Zaara, and Abyſſinia, the people are of a tawny complexion; but in all other parts they are quite black, have flat noſes, thick lips, and hair like wool.

Q. What are the commodities of Africa?

A. In Barbary, Egypt, and Nubia, are rice, figs, raiſins, oranges, lemons, citrons, almonds, pomegranates, olives, ſenna, leather, civit, ſugar, and indigo. In Negroland and Guinea, oſtriches feathers, gold duſt, elephant's teeth, and pepper. In the ſouth, along the coaſt, ambergriſe, frankincenſe, muſk, millet, ſenna, pearls, gold, ſilver, &c. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the traffic on the Guinea or weſtern coaſt, where the Europeans purchaſe them like ſo many cattle, carry them to America, and there ſell them for ſlaves.

Q. What are the iſlands of this quarter?

A. The only conſiderable one in ſize is Madagaſcar, a large one in the Indian Ocean; the others are all ſmall, and thoſe of moſt note are St. Helena, Aſcenſion, St. Jago, St. Vincent, Mayo, Canary, Teneriffe, Ferro, Madeira, in the Atlantic Ocean.

Q. Are there any mountains of note?

A. The principal are, the Lybian, between Zaara and Egypt; Atlas, between Barbary and Bilidulgerid; the Mountains of the Moon, in Ethiopia; and the Peak, in Teneriffe.

Q. What are its rivers?

A. The moſt noted are the Nile, in Nubia and Egypt; and the Niger running through all Negroland, of which the Gambia and Senegal are branches.

The Pyramids of Egypt, near Cairo are the moſt ſtupendous ſtructures that ever were raiſed by the hands of men: the baſis of the largeſt covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height 500 feet, but if meaſured obliquely, 700 feet. Their antiquity is beyond the reſearches of hiſtory, and their original uſes ſtill unknown.

Of America.

Q. How is America ſituated?

A. It lies above 2000 miles weſt of Europe and Africa. Bounded on the north by unknown parts, by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and by the South Sea or Pacific Ocean on the ſouth and weſt; ſtretching about 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth 3700. Nature ſeems to have divided it into two continents, North and South, by a narrow neck of land, called the Iſthmus of Darien, or Panama, which in ſome places is not more than 30 miles over. And in the great gulph, which is formed between the iſthmus and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands denominated the Weſt Indies, in contradiſtinction to the iſlands of Aſia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the Eaſt Indies.

Q. In what manner is this extenſive country divided?

A. Thoſe vaſt regions toward the north pole, and the country round Hudſon's Bay, are very little known; the other parts are divided as follow.

North America.

Nations.	*Length.*	*Breadth.*	*Chief Towns.*
New Britain	850	750	Not known.
Quebec	600	200	Quebec
New Brunſwick New Scotland	350	250	St. John Halifax
New England	550	200	Boſton
New York	300	150	New York
New Jerſey	160	60	Perth-Amboy
Pennſylvania	300	240	Philadelphia
Maryland	140	135	Annapolis
Virginia	750	240	Williamſburgh
North Carolina South Carolina	700	240	Edenton Charleſton
Georgia	630	140	Savannah
Eaſt Florida Weſt Florida	500	440	St. Auguſtin Penſacola
Louiſiana	1200	645	New Orleans

New

New Mexico	2000	1000	St. Fee
California			St. Juan
Mexico	2000	600	Mexico

South America.

Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama
Guiana	780	480	Surinam
Amazonia	1200	960	Not known
Peru	2000	600	Lima
Braſil	2000	700	St. Salvador
Paraguay	1500	1100	Aſſumption
Chili	1200	600	St. Jago
Patagonia	1400	460	Not known

The original natives of this country are generally of a good ſize, well made, and of a brown or copper complexion; but in Paraguay, and farther ſouthward, tolerably fair: they pull their beards up by the roots, go for the moſt part naked, and paint themſelves of various colours.

Q. What are the commodities of theſe countries?

A. North America produces cotton, ſilk, ſkins, furs, feathers, cochineal, logwood, mahogany, tobacco, iron, ſugar, and ſeveral ſorts of drugs. South America, gold, ſilver, pearls, emeralds, jaſpers, amythiſts, ebony, Braſil wood, Peruvian bark, amber, roſin, balſam, feathers, &c.

Q. What iſlands belong to America?

A. They are innumerable; but the principal ones lie in the Atlantic Ocean. In the north the moſt noted are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John; between the two continents, Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, Porto Rico, Margaretta, Curaſſou, Martinico, Guadaloupe; and in the ſouth, Trinidad, Falkland, and Terra del Fuego.

Q. Is America remarkable for mountains?

A. Though in general not deemed a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In South America, the Andees or Cordelleras run along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean 4300 miles in length; and Chimboraza, the loftieſt, is near ſeven miles high. In North America, are the Apalachean or Alligany mountains, on the eaſt of Louiſiana; with many others toward the pole.

Q. What are its principal rivers?

A. In North America, the Miſſiſſippi is the greateſt, of which the Illinois and Ohio are branches; the rivers St. Laurence, Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehana and Potowmack. In South America, the Amazons, Rio de la Plata, and Oronoquo; the firſt two being the largeſt rivers in the world.

Beſide the above and many other large rivers, the inland parts abound with extenſive lakes. In North America there are five which communicate with one another, and run into the river St. Laurence; the ſmalleſt is not leſs than 600 miles in circumference, and the greateſt, which includes ſeveral large iſlands, is 1500 miles round: and all of them are navigable by any veſſels.

Chronology.

Q. What is underſtood by chronology?

A. The ſcience of computing time, diſtinguiſhing its parts, and adjuſting events to their proper periods.

Q. What are the parts of time?

A. Years, months, weeks, days, hours, minutes, ſeconds, &c. and by theſe the larger periods of time, as epochs, ages, luſtrums, olympiads, indictions and cycles, are eſtimated and meaſured.

Q. What is an epoch?

A. The time at which a new computation is begun, and from which dates are numbered by hiſtorians; as the creation of the world, the building of Rome, the birth of Chriſt, &c. It alſo frequently remarks the account of time from one remarkable event to another; but this is more properly called an *era.*

Q. What is an age?

A. An age, or century, is a ſecular period, or a ſpace of time including one hundred years.

Q. What is a luſtrum?

A. A ſpace of five years; uſed chiefly by the Roman poets.

Q. What is an olympiad?

A. A ſpace of four years, whereby the ancient Greeks reckoned their time ſince the inſtitution of the olympic games, in a plain near the town of Olympias, which they celebrated at the beginning of every fifth year. They were inſtituted by Hercules in honour of Jupiter, 774 years before Chriſt.

Q. What is an indiction?

A. A revolution of fifteen years; uſed by the Romans, for indicating the time of certain payments made by the people to the republic.

Q. What is a cycle?

A. A periodical ſpace of time in which the ſame revolutions begin again; as thoſe of the Sun and Moon. The cycle of the Sun is a period of 28 years, which elapſed, the days of the month return again to the ſame days of the week. The cycle of the Moon is a period of 19 years, in which time the new and full moons return again to the ſame days of the year.

Q. Of what uſe are theſe cycles?

A. By the revolution of the ſolar cycle, the Dominical or Sunday-letter is found; and the year of the lunar cycle, is called the Prime or Golden Number: and from both theſe the time of celebrating Eaſter is determined; as may be ſeen in the tables prefixed to the Book of Common Prayer.

Architecture.

Architecture.

Q. What is architecture?

A. The art of building or erecting edifices: it is of three kinds, civil, military, and naval.

Q. In what does civil architecture conſiſt?

A. In deſigning and building edifices of every kind for the uſes of civil life; as churches, colleges, halls, palaces, &c. and theſe are diſtinguiſhed, with regard to the ſeveral ſtates thereof, into the antique, Gothic, modern, &c.

Q. What are the orders of civil architecture?

A. They are five; the Tuſcan, Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Compoſite. They take their names from the people who invented them, except the Compoſite, which is ſo called from being compoſed out of the other orders, and was invented by the Romans.

Q. What is military architecture?

A. The art of ſtrengthening and fortifying towns and places, to ſcreen them from the inſults of enemies, and the violence of arms; as the erecting of forts, caſtles, and other fortreſſes, with ramparts, baſtions, &c. This art is more uſually called *fortification.*

Q. In what conſiſts naval architecture?

A. It teaches the conſtructions of ſhips, gallies, and other floating veſſels for the water; with ports, moles, docks, &c. on the ſhore; whether for the ſervice of war or commerce.

Painting.

Q. What is painting?

A. The art of repreſenting all manner of objects by lines and colours, on an even and uniform ſurface.

Q. How is this art divided?

A. Into ſix parts; the deſign, the proportion, the expreſſion, the clair-obſcure, the ordonnance, and the colouring.

Deſign, is the ſimple contour, or outlines, of the figures, or things intended to be repreſented; or the lines that terminate and circumſcribe them.

Proportion, is the juſt magnitude of the ſeveral members of a figure, a groupe, &c. with regard to one another, to the whole figure, the groupe, and the entire piece.

Expreſſion, denotes a natural and lively repreſentation of the ſubject, or of the ſeveral objects intended to be ſhown.

Clair-obſcure, is the art of diſtributing to advantage the lights and ſhadows of a piece, both with regard to eaſing the eye, and heightening the effect of the whole compoſition.

Ordonnance, denotes the diſpoſition of the parts of a picture, either with regard to the whole piece, or the ſeveral parts.

Colouring, is the manner of applying, and conducting the colour of a picture; or the mixture of lights and ſhadows, formed by the various colours employed in a painting.

Q. What are the various kinds of painting?

A. They are diſtinguiſhed, with regard to the materials uſed; the matter whereon they are applied; and the manner of applying them: from hence the principal kinds of painting are as follow:

Oil, ſimply called *painting*, conſiſts in grinding the colours with nut or linſeed oil: an invention of the utmoſt advantage to the art; ſince, by this means, the colours of a picture are preſerved much longer, and receive a luſtre which the ancients could never attain to, whatever varniſh they made uſe of to cover their pieces.

Water-colours, or *limning*, has the colours mixed with water only; or ſometimes a little ſize added; and is a much more ancient art than painting in oil.

Freſco, is a kind of painting with water-colours on freſh plaſter, or on a wall laid with mortar not yet dry; ſo that incorporating with the mortar, and drying along with it, the colours become extremely durable.

Diſtemper, is a term, for paintings that have the colours mixed with ſize, whites of eggs, or any ſuch proper glutinous, or unctuous ſubſtance, and not with oil.

Miniature, is a delicate kind of painting, conſiſting of little points or dots, inſtead of lines, and done with thin water-colours.

Encauſtic, is a ſpecies of painting with burnt wax; it conſiſts in applying water-colours upon a coating of bees-wax, and when the picture is dry, it is put near a fire, whereby the wax melts, and abſorbs all the colours.

Enamel, is a method of painting with enamels, or metalline colours, ground, reduced to powder, and uſed like other colours with a pencil; then fuſed, baked again, and vitrified by force of fire.

Glaſs, is a kind of painting ſomewhat ſimilar to enamel, the colours being incorporated with the glaſs itſelf, by expoſing them to a proper degree of fire.

Sculpture.

Q. What is ſculpture?

A. The art of cutting or carving wood and ſtone into images; as alſo of faſhioning wax, earth, plaſter, &c. to ſerve as models, or moulds, for the caſting of metalline figures.

Q. Is not this a very ancient art?

A. Its antiquity is paſt doubt, as the ſacred writings mention it in ſeveral places; witneſs Laban's idols taken away by Rachel, the brazen ſerpent, the golden calf, &c.

It is probable that ſculpture is more ancient than painting; and from the ſtyle of ancient painting there is reaſon to conclude, that ſculpture ſtood firſt in the public eſteem: for the ancient painters have evidently imitated the ſtatuaries; ſince their works have not that freedom of ſtyle, eſpecially with reſpect to their drapery, which the pencil might eaſily acquire to a greater degree than that of the chiſſel.

Q. Which is the moſt difficult of theſe two arts?

A. Painting has the greateſt number of requiſites, but at the ſame time its expedients are the moſt numerous; and therefore we may venture to affirm, that, whenever ſculpture pleaſes equally with a painting, the ſculptor is certainly the greateſt artiſt.

Q. What are deemed the beſt ſpecimens of ſculpture in England?

A. The ſtatues of Phrenzy and Melancholy on the piers before Bethlehem hoſpital, deſerve to be ranked among the firſt performances in this art; they were executed by Cibber. There is alſo a moſt elegant ſtatue of Edward VI, in bronze, at St. Thomas' hoſpital, in Southwark, by Sckeemaker; and one of Sir Iſaac Newton, at Cambridge, by Roubiliac. Weſtminſter-abbey is a famous repoſitory of ſculpture; but the figures loſe much of their effect, by being crouded together, without any orderly arrangement: the monument of the Duke of Argyle, and one of Mrs. Nightingale, both by Roubiliac, and that of Dr. Chamberlain, by Sckeemaker, ſeem to ſtand higheſt in the public opinion.

MYTHOLOGY.

Q. What is mythology?

A. The hiſtory and explication of the fabulous gods and heroes of the heathen world.

Q. Whence is the word mythology derived?

A. From a Greek word [*muthologia*] ſignifying a diſcourſe or deſcription of fables.

Q. Of what uſe is a knowledge of theſe fables?

A. To underſtand the writings of the poets, and to explain the hiſtorical and fabulous repreſentations introduced in pictures.

Q. How are the heathen gods divided?

A. Into ſix claſſes; the celeſtial, terreſtrial, marine, infernal, ſubordinate, and demi-gods.

Of the Celeſtial Deities.

Q. Who are the celeſtial deities?

A. The gods of this claſs are Jupiter, Apollo, Mercury, Bacchus, and Mars; and the goddeſſes, Juno, Minerva, and Venus.

Q. Who was *Jupiter?*

A. The ſovereign god of the heathens [*]; the ſon of Saturn and Ops; born in Crete, at the ſame birth with Juno: he married Juno, expelled his father out of his kingdom, and divided it with his brethren. Under ſeveral ſhapes he is ſaid to have played many wanton pranks; ſo that according to poetic fiction, he filled heaven with his natural children.

Q. How was the ſovereign authority divided among the ſons of Saturn?

A. Jupiter, as the eldeſt, had the heavens, Neptune the waters, and Pluto the infernal regions.

---

[*] The heathens in general believed that there was but one ſupreme God; but when they conſidered this one great being as influencing the affairs of the world, they gave him as many different names; and hence proceeded their variety of nominal gods. When he thundered or lightened, they called him Jupiter; when he calmed the ſea, Neptune; when he guided their councils, Minerva; and when he gave them ſtrength in battle, Mars. In proceſs of time they uſed different repreſentations of this Jupiter, Neptune, &c. and conſidered them, vulgarly at leaſt, as ſo many different perſons. They afterward regarded each of them in different views, according as they ſhowered down bleſſings or inflicted puniſhments. There was alſo one Jupiter for Europe, and another for Africa; and in Europe there was one great Jupiter who was the particular friend of the Athenians, and another who was the ſpecial protector of the Romans; nay, there was ſcarce a town in Italy that had not a Jupiter of its own. In this way Jupiter at length had temples and different characters almoſt every where.

Q. Had Jupiter any children by Juno?

A. He had two ſons, Vulcan and Mars, and a daughter named *Hebe*, who, for her extraordinary beauty, he made goddeſs of youth; ſhe was likewiſe his cup-bearer, and poured out the nectar, the drink of the gods, which they alſo called ambroſia.

Q. How is Jupiter repreſented?

A. He is generally painted as ſitting, with the fulmen or thunder, or rather lightning, in one hand, and a ſceptre with an eagle in the other; ſometimes an eagle is placed at his feet, that bird having the title of his armour-bearer: when repreſented in a chariot, he is drawn by four horſes.

Q. Who were the parents of *Apollo?*

A. Jupiter and Latona: he was born in the iſland Delos, at the ſame birth with Diana.

Q. What advanced Apollo among the gods?

A. The invention of phyſic, muſic, poetry, and rhetoric, which are aſcribed to him; and therefore he is ſaid to preſide over the Muſes. He had a famous temple at Delphos, where his oracles were in great eſtimation.

Q. In what manner is Apollo diſtinguiſhed?

A. By the beauty of his face, and the gracefulneſs of his figure; with a laurel-crown on his head, a bow and arrows in one hand, and a harp in the other.

Q. Does not Apollo ſometimes mean the ſun?

A. Yes; beſide his former deifications he is alſo the god of light, and thence is generally called *Phœbus.*

Q. Who was *Mercury?*

A. The ſon of Jupiter and Maia, god of eloquence and commerce, and the patron of thieves: he was the meſſenger of the gods, and conducted ſouls to their proper place, after their parting from the body.

Q. How is he repreſented?

A. As a youth of extreme lightneſs and agility; but the moſt remarkable of his diſtinguiſhing attributes are his petaſus, or winged cap; his talaria, or winged ſhoes; and his caduceus, or wand, with wings at the top, and bound by two ſerpents.

Q. What do you ſay of *Bacchus?*

A. He was the ſon of Jupiter and Semele, and the god of wine: he is repreſented as a jolly beardleſs youth, crowned with ivy and vine leaves; a ſpear wrapped with the ſame, in one hand; and with grapes, or a cup, in the other. He is uſually attended by Silenus and a drunken band of ſatyrs, nymphs, &c. and when carried in a chariot, is drawn by lions and tygers, or by lynxes and panthers.

Q. Who was *Mars?*

A. The ſon of Jupiter and Juno, or, as Ovid tells the ſtory, of Juno alone; ſhe being diſpleaſed that Jupiter ſhould have a daughter, Minerva, without female aid: being therefore a ſon of diſcontent, he was made the god of war and ſtrife.

Q. How is he diſtinguiſhed?

A. He is painted with a fierce and ſour aſpect; terror every where in his looks, cloathed in armour, a helmet on his head, and a ſpear in his hand. When in a chariot he is drawn by two horſes, which are driven by his ſiſter *Bellona*, the goddeſs of war, who is repreſented as a diſtracted woman.

Q. What are the diſtinguiſhing characters of *Juno*, the ſiſter and wife of Jupiter?

A. Being queen of the gods, and goddeſs of the air, ſhe is beautiful, and full of majeſty; has a ſceptre in her hand, a crown of roſes and lilies on her head, and her chariot drawn by peacocks. She is attended by *Iris*, her meſſenger to promote ſtrife and contention, who, on account of her ſwiftneſs, is repreſented with wings, and riding on a rainbow.

Q. From whence did *Minerva* proceed?

A. She came forth from the brain of her father Jupiter, completely armed; and is the only one of his offspring to whom pertain the prerogatives of the ſupreme rank of divinity. She is the goddeſs of wiſdom and the arts, and the inventreſs and preſident of war.

Q. How is ſhe repreſented by poets and painters?

A. Minerva, or Pallas, is diſtinguiſhed by the dignity of her face, and a ſternneſs bordering on maſculine; a helmet with a plumed creſt on her head, a ſpear in her right hand, and in the other a ſhield, with the head of Meduſa upon it; the ſame figure appears alſo on her breaſt-plate: ſhe is generally accompanied by a cock and an owl, as emblems of fighting and wiſdom.

Q. Who was *Venus?*

A. The handſomeſt of all the goddeſſes: ſhe ſprung from the froth of the ſea, was educated by the Hours, and afterward carried by them into heaven, where the gods found her ſo extremely beautiful, that they were deſirous of marrying her, and named her the goddeſs of love; but at laſt ſhe was married to Vulcan, the moſt ugly and deformed of all the gods.

Q. In what manner is Venus deſcribed?

A. The poets, painters, and ſtatuaries repreſent her in a variety of alluring forms: with her hair waving over her naked ſhoulders, or negligently tied behind in golden treſſes; with a mantle, exhibiting all the colours of the rainbow and glittering with diamonds, ſometimes flowing looſely, and at other times bound with a girdle, called ceſtus; ſometimes ſhe is exhibited like a young virgin riſing from the ſea, and riding in a ſhell; ſometimes with a ſhell in her hand, and her head crowned with roſes; with a mirror in her hand, and golden ſandles on her feet; with poppy in one hand, and an apple in the other. She is accompanied by Cupid and the Graces, and followed by the beautiful Adonis, who holds up her train. When riding in her chariot, which is of ivory carved and gilt, ſhe is drawn by ſwans, doves, or ſwallows.

Q. How is *Cupid* repreſented?

A. This god of love appears as a naked boy, with wings; and with a quiver, bow, and darts, or a torch: though he is youngeſt of all the gods, yet his power is deemed the ſtrongeſt.

Q. Who are the *Graces?*

A. Three ſiſters, named Aglaia, Thalia, and Euphroſyne: they are generally repreſented naked, very beautiful, and their hands connected together.

Of the Terreſtrial Deities.

Q. Who are the terreſtrial deities?

A. The moſt celebrated are Saturn, Vulcan, Æolus, and Momus; Veſta, Cybele, Ceres, and the Muſes; there are alſo others of note, which reſide in the woods, and are properly called *gods of the woods.*

Q. Who was *Saturn?*

A. Saturn, the father of the gods, was the ſon of Uranus and Veſta, or Coelum and Terra: his brothers were Titan, Oceanus, and divers others; his ſiſters were Ceres, and Cybele (otherwiſe Ops, or Rhea) whom he afterward married. Being dethroned by his ſon Jupiter, he took refuge in Italy, where he civilized the people and introduced ſeveral parts of agriculture.

Q. How is he repreſented?

A. Under the figure of a decrepid old man, with a long beard, and hoary head; bearing in one hand a pruning hook or ſcythe, and in the other a child, which he is about to devour; ſometimes he is furniſhed with wings, and a hour-glaſs: Saturn and Time being the ſame, he is thus repreſented to denote the ſwiftneſs of time, and that it deſtroys every thing.

Q. What do you ſay of *Vulcan?*

A. He was the ſon of Jupiter and Juno, and the huſband of Venus, as mentioned before. On account of his deformity, he was caſt down from heaven, fell on the iſland Lemnos, and broke his leg; there he ſet up the trade of a ſmith, manufactured Jupiter's thunder and the arms of the other gods, and taught the manifold uſes of fire and iron. He is therefore repreſented lame and deformed, as blackened and hardened from the forge, and with a face red and fiery: ſometimes he is attended by the Cyclops, his ſervants and workmen, who have only one eye, which is placed in the middle of their foreheads. This poor god is always the ſubject of pity or ridicule: he is the grand cuckold of heaven; and the great celeſtial deities ſeem to have admitted him among them merely to make them ſport.

Q. What is the province of *Æolus?*

A. He is god of the winds; painted with ſwoln cheeks, like one who endeavours to blow a blaſt forcibly; alſo with wings on his ſhoulders, and a high coloured fiery countenance.

Q. Is not *Momus* the god of folly?

A. Yes; his name ſignifies a jeſter, mocker, or mimic, and that is his employment; for when he finds the gods doing amiſs, or neglecting their duty, he cenſures, mocks, and derides them with the greateſt freedom. He is repreſented with a maſk and groteſque face.

Q. Who was *Veſta?*

A. Veſta, or Terra, the wife of Coelum, and mother of Saturn, is the oldeſt of the goddeſſes: ſhe is repreſented ſitting, and with a drum, becauſe the Earth is immoveable, and contains the boiſterous winds in its boſom; ſhe has a crown on her head formed of divers flowers, and ſeveral animals creeping about and fawning upon her.

There was another Veſta, the daughter of Saturn, and a virgin goddeſs: ſhe is the ſame with Ignis, or Fire, and her power was exerciſed about altars and houſes.

Q. How is *Cybele*, the wife of Saturn, and mother of the gods, repreſented?

A. Being goddeſs of all things which the earth ſuſtains, ſhe is ſeated in a chariot drawn by lions, her garments of various colours and figured with the images of divers creatures, a key in her hand, and a crown of towers on her head.

Q. What is the office of her ſiſter *Ceres?*

A. She is the goddeſs of corn and tillage; repreſented tall and majeſtic, with ſwelling breaſts, and yellow hair; on her head a turbant compoſed of the ears of corn, in one hand poppies and ears of corn, and in the other a lighted torch.

Q. Who are the *Muſes?*

A. Nine beautiful virgins, the daughters of Jupiter and the nymph Mnemoſyne, or Memory: they are miſtreſſes of the ſciences, and governors of the feſtivals of the gods.

Q. What are their names, and the ſciences over which they preſide?

A. Calliope is the goddeſs of rhetoric; *Clio*, of hiſtory; *Erato*, of poetry; *Thalia*, of comedy; *Melpomene*, of tragedy; *Terpſichore*, of dance; *Euterpe*, of muſic; *Polyhymnia*, of ſong; and *Urania*, of aſtronomy.

Q. Pleaſe to deſcribe the *gods of the woods?*

A. The principal of theſe deities, and the manner in which they are repreſented, are as follow:

Pan, the god of ſhepherds and hunters, has a ſmiling ruddy face, a long beard, and two horns on his head; his ſkin is ſpotted, his thighs and legs covered with long hair, and he has the tail and feet of a goat; in one hand he holds a crooked ſtaff, and in the other a pipe of uneven reeds.

Sylvanus, who preſides over the woods, is an old man of little ſtature, with the tail and feet of a goat, holding a branch of cypreſs in his hand.

Silenus, ſo called from his jocular temper, was the tutor of Bacchus and his perpetual companion; he is repreſented as an old man, with a bald head, a flat noſe, large ears, gor-bellied, a tail, and cloven feet: he is generally drunk, and mounted on an aſs; but when walking he is ſupported by a ſtaff.

The *Satyrs*, and *Fauns*, are attendants on Pan; they are horned, and have the tail and legs of a goat.

Diana, the goddeſs of the woods, was twin ſiſter to Apollo; and as he is ſometimes called Sol, or the Sun, ſhe is often called Luna, or the Moon. Her delight is in hunting; accordingly ſhe is deſcribed as running, with a ſhort veſt girt about her, yet flying back with the wind: ſhe is tall of ſtature; her face very handſome, yet ſomewhat manly; and her legs are bare, well-ſhaped, and ſtrong: her attributes are a javelin, or a bow, quiver, and arrows.

Flora, the goddeſs of flowers, is repreſented young and graceful, holding in her right hand the bloſſom of beans and peas, and adorned with various flowers.

Pomona, the goddeſs of fruit, is an amiable nymph, and her attributes a baſket full of fruit, a number of apples in her left hand, and in her right a noſegay of flowers.

The *Nymphs*, are young and beautiful virgins, who attend on the ſuperior celeſtial, terreſtrial, and marine deities. Thoſe of the air are called *Auræ*; of the woods, *Dryades*; of the mountains, *Oreades*; of the ſea, *Nereides*; and of the rivers, or fountains, *Naiades*.

Of the Marine Deities.

Q. How is *Neptune*, the god of the ſea, deſcribed?

A. He is commonly repreſented ſtanding, majeſtic and ſerene, with a trident in his right hand, a dolphin on his left, and treading on the beak of a ſhip. When paſſing over the calm ſurface of the waters, he is in his chariot, which is a large eſcallop-ſhell, drawn by ſea horſes or dolphins, accompanied by his queen and numerous attendants.

Q. Who did he marry?

A. *Amphitrite*, daughter of Nereus and Doris, parents of the Nereides.

Q. Who are his attendants?

A. Triton, the Siren, and the Nereides.

Q. Who was *Triton?*

A. The ſon of Neptune and Amphitrite, and trumpeter to his father: he is repreſented as half man, half fiſh, terminating in a dolphin's tail, and bearing in one hand a wreathed ſea ſhell, which ſerves him for a trumpet. Some poets have imagined ſeveral Tritons, and they are introduced not only as trumpeters in Neptune's retinue, but alſo as drawing his chariot.

Q. Pleaſe to deſcribe the *Sirens*?

A. They are ſuppoſed to have been the three daughters of Achelous and Melpomene, and are called Parthenope, Lygea, and Leucoſia: the ancients deſcribe them with the faces of women, and the bodies of birds; but the moderns repreſent them as beautiful women from the head to the middle, and downward by that of a fiſh covered with ſcales. They are ſaid to reſide on rocks where veſſels are in danger of ſplitting; and alluring voyagers by the ſweetneſs of their melody, they put them to death. The Tritons and Sirens, are ſometimes called *mermen* and *mermaids*.

Q. How are the *Nereides* repreſented?

A. Theſe ſea nymphs compoſe the train of Amphitrite, and much reſemble the modern Sirens in their figure.

Of the Infernal Deities.

Q. In what manner is *Pluto*, god of the infernal regions, deſcribed by the poets and painters?

A. He is repreſented extremely black and ugly, with a key, or a ſceptre of two points, in his hand, and a crown of ebony on his head; ſometimes he is crowned with cypreſs leaves, or the flowers of narciſſus, becauſe he ſtole away Proſerpine when ſhe was gathering that flower. When riding in his chariot, he is drawn by black horſes.

Q. Who was *Proſerpine?*

A. The daughter of Jupiter and Ceres, ſtolen by Pluto out of Sicily, and carried to his ſubterranean dominion, where ſhe was the partner of his empire.

Q. How is Neptune attended?

A. By the Fates, the Furies, and the Judges; by Harpies, Gorgons, and other monſters; alſo by Charon, and the dog Cerberus.

Q. Who are the *Fates?*

A. They are three ſiſters, repreſented elderly, and cloathed in white, bordered with purple: their names are Clotho, Lacheſis, and Atropos. To them is intruſted the management of the fatal thread of life; Clotho draws the thread, Lacheſis turns the wheel, and Atropos cuts the thread ſpun.

Q. Pleaſe to deſcribe the *Furies?*

A. The principal of theſe are three ſiſters, called Alecto, Tiſiphone, and Megæra: they are repreſented old and meagre, with pale cheeks, inflamed eyes, ſnakes on their heads inſtead of hair, and whips or burning torches in their hands. Their office is to puniſh wicked men for their crimes, and to torment the conſciences of ſecret offenders.

Q. Who are the *Judges?*

A. Minos, Rhadamanthus, and Æacus, ſons of Jupiter: Minos holds a golden ſceptre, and overſees the judgement of the other two, who each hold a ſtaff in their hand. When the ſouls of the dead have paſſed their tribunal, they are conveyed either to Elyſium or Tartarus, the former a place abounding with pleaſures and delights for the good, and the other a hideous dungeon for the wicked.

Q. What are the *Harpies?*

A. Rapacious monſters, with the faces of women, the ears of bears, and the bodies of vultures. There were three of them, all ſiſters, their names Aello, Ocypete, and Celeno.

Q. Deſcribe the *Gorgons?*

A. Theſe were alſo three ſiſters, and are deſcribed with wings on their ſhoulders, ſerpents round their heads, and their teeth of a prodigious ſize. Their names were Stheno, Euryale, and Meduſa; the latter of whom was mortal, and killed by Perſeus.

Q. Who was *Charon?*

A. A decrepid old man with a long beard, yet of youthful vigour, and dirty in perſon and attire: his employment was to ferry ſouls over the rivers at the entrance of hell.

Q. What were thoſe rivers?

A. Four: *Acheron*, whoſe waters are extremely bitter; *Styx*, by which the gods were uſed to ſwear; *Cocytus*, flowing out of Styx, with a horrible groaning noiſe; and *Phlegethon*, ſwelling with waves of fire. Beſide theſe rivers at the entrance, there is another in Elyſium, named *Lethe*, from the forgetfulneſs it cauſes; for thoſe who drink of its water, immediately forget all paſt tranſactions.

Q. Is there ought remarkable of the dog *Cerberus?*

A. He had three heads, and his body covered with ſnakes inſtead of hair: he was ſtationed at the gates of Pluto's palace; and is ſometimes called the *porter of hell.*

Q. What other deities are there in the infernal regions?

A. Old *Erebus* and his wife *Nox*, who preſide over darkneſs and night: alſo *Mors* over death, and *Somnus* over ſleep, who, by his ſervant Morpheus, ſends dreams to people in this world while ſleeping. *Plutus*, the god of riches, is generally deemed an infernal deity; for riches come out of the earth, and are the root of all evil.

Of the Subordinate Deities.

Q. Who are deemed ſubordinate deities?

A. Thoſe gods and goddeſſes who preſide over kingdoms, provinces, cities, towns, ſtreets, houſes, &c. and

&c. and that preſide over infants, children, young people, and adult perſons. Their number is infinite, there being almoſt as many gods as there are things.

Of the Demi-Gods.

Q. What do you ſay of the demi-gods?

A. The demi-gods and heroes, were thoſe who had human bodies, ſacred minds, and celeſtial ſouls. The principal of theſe are Hercules, Jaſon, Theſeus, Caſtor and Pollux, Perſeus, Æſculapius, Prometheus, Atlas, Orpheus, Achilles, Ulyſſes, Orion, Oſiris.

Beſide the gods and goddeſſes belonging to the ſeveral claſſes already mentioned, many of the virtues and vices had their peculiar deities.

HISTORY.

Q. What is hiſtory?

A. A recital or deſcription of things as they are, or have been, in a continued orderly narration of their principal facts and circumſtances.

Q. Whence is the word derived?

A. From a Greek word [*iſtoria*] which literally denotes a ſearch of curious things, or a deſire of knowing, or even a rehearſal of things that have been ſeen.

Q. How is hiſtory divided?

A. Hiſtory has various diviſions in regard to its time, its matter, and its form.

Q. What are the diviſions as to time?

A. With reſpect to time, hiſtory is divided into *ancient* and *modern*, diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral epochs, periods, and intervals. Ancient hiſtory includes an account of all things from the creation of the world to the birth of Chriſt; and modern hiſtory, from the birth of Chriſt to the preſent time.

Q. Into what periods has hiſtory been derived?

A. It is diſtinguiſhed into three ages: the firſt, from the creation to the deluge, which is reckoned the *obſcure* or *uncertain age*, becauſe we know no more than the ſhort account given of it in the holy ſcriptures; the ſecond, from the deluge to the firſt olympiad, which, from the many feigned ſtories related in it, is deemed the *heroic* or *fabulous age*; the third, from the firſt olympiad to our own times, is called the *hiſtorical age*, becauſe the actions done in that period are recorded by writers of true hiſtory.

Q. How is hiſtory divided with regard to its matter?

A. Into *ſacred*, *natural*, *civil*, *perſonal*, and *ſingular*; to which may be added *artificial hiſtory*, giving an account of the origin and progreſs of arts; and *miſcellaneous hiſtory*, which recites various things as they promiſcuouſly occur in human life.

Q. What is ſacred hiſtory?

A. It is that which lays before us the myſteries and ceremonies of religion, viſions, miracles, and other ſupernatural things, whereof God alone is the author. Such are the book of Geneſis, the Goſpels, Apocalypſe, &c. Sacred hiſtory, ſince the deſtruction of Jeruſalem, or the 70th year after the birth of Chriſt, is more properly called *eccleſiaſtical hiſtory*; which denotes a narration of the tranſactions, revolutions, and events, that relate to the ſtate of the Chriſtian church from its commencement to the preſent time. Hiſtories on other ſubjects has the general name of *profane hiſtory.*

Q. What is meant by natural hiſtory?

A. A deſcription of the ſingularities and alterations of natural bodies; whether terreſtrial, as animals, vegetables, foſſils, fire, water, &c. or celeſtial, as the ſtars, planets, comets, &c. It is much the ſame with what is otherwiſe called *phyſiology.*

Q. In what does civil hiſtory conſiſt?

A. In a narration of facts relating to people, ſtates, republics, communities, cities, &c. and may be divided into *particular* and *general:* the former conſiſts of a number of facts relating to the ſame ſtate, ſuitably connected and laid together in a proper ſeries; the latter is made of ſeveral particular hiſtories, whoſe ſeperate tranſactions within the ſame period ſhould be ſo diſtinctly related as to cauſe no confuſion. Civil hiſtory, in its more unlimited extent, is denominated *univerſal hiſtory.*

Q. To what ſubject is perſonal hiſtory applied?

A. To a narrative which gives the portrait or life of ſome particular perſon. It is the ſame with what is otherwiſe called *biography*, and may be denominated *literary hiſtory*, as it records the lives and productions of learned men, the controverſies that ſubſiſted among them, and the riſe and advancement of ſciences.

Q. What is ſingular hiſtory?

A. It is that which deſcribes a ſingle action, ſiege, battle, or even a war or expedition, &c.

Q. How is hiſtory divided as to its form?

A. Into ſimple, figurative, and mixed. The *ſimple*, is that delivered without any art or foreign ornament; being only a naked and faithful recital of things, juſt in the manner and order wherein they paſſed: the *figurative*, is that which is further enriched with ornaments, by the wit, ingenuity, and addreſs of the hiſtorian: the *mixed*, is that which, beſide the ornaments of figured hiſtory, calls in the proofs and authorities of ſimple hiſtory, furniſhing authentic memoirs, letters, &c. to vouch the truth of what is related.

SOVEREIGNS of ENGLAND.

Before the Romans came into this iſland, the Britons, who then poſſeſſed the country, were divided into ſeveral nations, each of them governed by its own king. And when Britain became a member of the Roman empire, many of their tribes had their proper kings, who were ſuffered to govern by their own laws, provided they were tributary. After the Romans had quitted Britain, upon the irruption of the Goths into Italy in the 5th century, the kingly government returned to the Britains; who choſe for their king, Conſtantine, brother of Aldroinus, king of Britany in France, a prince of the Britiſh blood; to whom ſucceeded Conſtantine his ſon; then Vortiger, who uſurped the crown, and to maintain his uſurpation, firſt called in the Saxons, at that time hovering along the coaſt of Britain. The Saxons having got footing in the iſland, never left the Britains quiet till they were poſſeſſed of the whole: though they were overthrown in many battles by king Vortimer, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Vortiger, and afterward by king Arthur; yet the Britains were ſoon after his death ſo broken and weakened, that they were forced at laſt to retreat, and exchange the rich part of Britain for the mountains of Wales. Thus the Britains left the ſtage, and the Saxons entered. By theſe the country was divided into ſeven kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy; which continued for ſeveral ages, till the prevailing fortune of the Weſt Saxons, united them all into one, by the name of England.

Egbert, 17th king of the Weſt Saxons, and 19th monarch of Britain, was crowned at Wincheſter, in the year 819, firſt king of England; died 836; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Ethelwolf, died 857; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Ethelbald, died 860; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Ethelbert, died 866; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Ethelred I, received a wound in battle, of which he died, 872; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Alfred, died 901; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Edward the Elder, died 924; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Athelstan, died 940; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Edmund I, received a wound, in endeavouring to part two of his ſervants, by which he bled to death, 946; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Edred, died 955; and was ſucceeded by his nephew,

Edwy, eldeſt ſon of Edmund I, died of grief 959; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Edgar, died 973; and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon,

Edward the Martyr, ſtabbed by order of his mother-in-law, 979; and was ſucceeded by his half-brother,

Ethelred II, died 1016; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Edmund II, murdered 1017, and was ſucceeded by,

Canute the Dane, deſcended from a daughter of Edward the Elder, died 1036; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Harold I, died 1039; and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Hardicanute, died 1041; and was ſucceeded by,

Edward the Confeſſor, ſon of Ethelred II, died Jan. 1066; and was ſucceeded by,

Harold II, ſon of the earl of Kent, ſlain in battle October 14, 1066; and was ſucceeded by,

William I, duke of Normandy, a deſcendant from Canute, born 1027; made a claim of the crown of England, and landed in Suſſex, Sept. 29, 1066; defeated the Engliſh troops at Haſtings, Oct. 14 following, when Harold was ſlain, and William aſſumed the title of Conqueror; crowned at Weſtminſter, Dec. 25, 1066; wounded by his ſon Robert in Normandy,

mandy, 1077; his queen Matilda, a deſcendant from Alfred, died in Normandy, 1085; he died at Hermentrude, in Normandy, Sept. 9, 1087; was buried at Caen, and ſucceeded in Normandy by his eldeſt ſon Robert, and in England by his ſecond ſurviving ſon,

WILLIAM II, born 1057; crowned Sept. 27, 1087; invaded Normandy with ſucceſs, 1089; killed by accident as he was hunting in New Foreſt, by ſir Walter Tyrrel, Aug. 2, 1100; was buried at Wincheſter, and ſucceeded by his brother,

HENRY I, born 1068; crowned Aug. 5, 1100; married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm king of Scots, Nov. 11 following; defeated his brother Robert, in Normandy, 1107, and ſent him priſoner to England; his eldeſt ſon ſhipwrecked and loſt in coming from Normandy, 1120; ſurfeited himſelf with eating lampreys at Lyons, in Normandy, and died Dec. 1, 1135; was buried at Reading, and ſucceeded by his nephew Stephen, third ſon of his ſiſter Adela, by the earl of Blois; though by will he left his dominions to his daughter,

MAUD, born 1101; married to Henry IV, emperor of Germany, 1109; he died 1127, and the Engliſh nobility ſwear fealty to her; married Jeffery Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, April 3, 1130; landed in England, and claimed her right to the crown, Sept. 1139; crowned, but ſoon after defeated at Wincheſter, 1141; retired to France, 1147; and died Sept. 10, 1167.

Stephen, born 1105; crowned Dec. 26, 1135; taken priſoner at Lincoln by the earl of Glouceſter, Maud's brother, Feb. 1141, but releaſed for the earl of Glouceſter, who was taken at Wincheſter; his queen Matilda died May 3, 1151; made peace with Henry, Maud's ſon, 1153; died of the piles at Dover, Oct. 25, 1154; was buried at Feverſham, and ſucceeded by,

Henry II, grandſon of Henry I, born 1133; crowned, with his queen Eleanor, Dec. 19, 1154; invaded Ireland, and conquered it, 1172; impriſoned his queen, on account of Roſamond his concubine, 1173; did penance at Becket's tomb, July 8, 1174; took the king of Scotland priſoner, 1175; had an amour with Alice of France, the intended princeſs of his ſon Richard, 1181; his ſon Richard rebels, 1185; died with grief in Normandy, curſing his ſons, July 6, 1189; was buried at Fonteveraud in France, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

Richard I, born at Oxford, Sept. 1157; crowned Sept. 3, 1189; conquered the iſland of Cyprus, and there married Berengera, daughter of the king of Navarre, May 12, 1191; arreſted near Vienna, by the duke of Auſtria, Dec. 20, 1192;

ranſomed for 40,000l. and returned to England, March 20, 1193; wounded with an arrow at Chalus, in Normandy, and died April 6, 1199; was buried at Fonteveraud, and ſucceeded by his brother,

JOHN, born Dec. 24, 1166; crowned May 27, 1199; divorced his wife Aviſa, and married Iſabella, daughter of the count of Angoſelme, 1200; took his nephew Arthur priſoner, Aug. 1, 1202, whom he murdered; impriſoned his queen, and baniſhed all the clergy 1208; excommunicated, 1209; ſurrendered his crown to Pandolf, the pope's legate, May 25, 1213; abſolved July 20 following; obliged by the barons to confirm Magna Charta, 1215; died at Newark, Oct. 18, 1216; was buried at Worceſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

HENRY III, born Oct. 1, 1207; crowned at Glouceſter, Oct. 28, 1216; crowned at Weſtminſter, 1219; married Eleanor, daughter of the count of Provence, Jan. 14, 1236; pledged his crown, plate, and jewels for money, 1248; obliged by his nobles to reſign the power of a ſovereign, and ſell Normandy and Anjou to the French, 1258; taken priſoner at Lewes, May 14, 1264; wounded at the battle of Eveſham, Aug. 4, 1265; died at Bury St. Edmund's, November 16, 1272; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

Edward I, born June 16, 1239; married Eleanor, princeſs of Caſtile, 1253; wounded in the Holy Land with a poiſoned dagger, but recovered by his princeſs ſucking out the venom, 1271; proclaimed king on the death of his father, 1272; landed in England, July 25, and crowned, Aug. 19, 1274; reduced the Welſh princes, 1282; his queen died of a fever, 1290; conquered Scotland, 1296, and brought to Weſtminſter their coronation chair, &c; married Margaret, ſiſter to the king of France, Sept. 12, 1299; died of a flux at Burgh in Cumberland, July 7, 1307; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

Edward II, born April 25, 1284; created prince of Wales, 1300, and was the firſt king of England's ſon that had the title; married Iſabel, daughter of the king of France, Jan. 23, 1308; crowned Feb. 24 following; obliged by the barons to veſt the government of the kingdom in 21 perſons, March 16, 1310; declared his queen and all her adherents, enemies to the kingdom, 1325; dethroned Jan. 13, 1327, and ſucceeded by his ſon Edward III; was murdered at Berkeley-caſtle, Sept. 21 following, and buried at Glouceſter.

Edward III, born at Windſor, Nov. 15, 1312; married Philippa, daughter of the earl of

Hainault, Jan. 24, 1326; accepted the crown on his father's forced reſignation, and crowned Jan. 26, 1327; claimed the crown of France, 1329; confined his mother Iſabel, and cauſed her favourite Mortimer to be hanged, Nov. 29, 1330; defeated the Scots at Hallidown, July 19, 1333; invaded France, and quartered the arms of England and France, 1339; defeated the French at Creſſy, Aug. 26, 1346, and his queen took the king of Scotland priſoner the ſame year; took Calais after a year's ſiege, Aug. 4, 1347; inſtituted the order of the Garter, 1349; his queen died, Aug. 16, 1369; he died at Richmond, June 21, 1377; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his grandſon Richard II, ſon to,

Edward the black prince, born June 15, 1330; created duke of Cornwall, 1337, the firſt in England that bore the title of Duke; created prince of Wales, 1344; defeated the French at Poictiers, Sept. 19, 1356, and brought their king priſoner to London, May 14, 1357; married Joanna, counteſs dowager of Holland, 1362; died of a conſumption, June 8, 1376, and was buried at Canterbury.

John of Gaunt, fourth ſon of Edward III, born 1340; married Blanch, daughter of the duke of Lancaſter, 1359, by whom he became poſſeſſed of that dukedom and title; ſhe died 1369, and in 1372, he married the daughter of the king of Caſtile and Leon, and took that title; married Catherine Swinford, 1396, by whom he had four children in the life time of his former ducheſs, who were afterward made legitimate by act of parliament, and from the eldeſt, Henry VII deſcended, he died 1399, and was buried in St. Paul's, London.

Richard II, born Jan. 6, 1367; crowned July 16, 1377; married Ann, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany, 1382, who died; 1395; married Iſabella, daughter of the king of France, 1396; cauſed his uncle Thomas duke of Glouceſter to be ſmothered, 1397; taken priſoner by his couſin Henry duke of Lancaſter, and ſent to the tower, Sept. 1, 1399; reſigned his crown Sept. 29 following, and ſucceeded by Henry IV; was murdered in Pomfret-caſtle, Jan. 1400, and buried at Langley, but removed by Henry V, to Weſtminſter.

Henry IV, duke of Lancaſter, grandſon of Edward III, born 1367; married Mary, daughter of the earl of Hartford, who died 1394; fought with the duke of Norfolk, 1397, and baniſhed; returned to England in arms againſt Richard II, and depoſed him Sept. 29, 1399; crowned Oct. 13 following, when he inſtituted the order of the Bath; married Joan of Navarre, widow of the duke of Britany, 1403; died of an apoplexy, March 20, 1413, was buried at Canterbury, and ſucceeded by his ſon, HENRY V, born 1318; defeated the Welſh in two battles, 1405; crowned Apr. 9, 1413; claimed the crown of France, 1414; gained the victory of Agincourt, Oct. 24, 1415; pledged his regalia for money, to puſh his conqueſts, 1416; declared regent, and married Catherine, of France, June 3, 1420; died of a fiſtula at Rouen, Aug. 31, 1422; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his only ſon,

HENRY VI, born Dec. 6, 1421; ſucceeded his father, and proclaimed king of France, 1422; crowned at Weſtminſter, Nov. 6, 1429; crowned at Paris, Dec. 17, 1430; married Margaret, daughter of the duke of Anjou, April 12, 1445; ordered Humphry duke of Glouceſter, his uncle, to be ſtrangled, 1447; taken priſoner at Northampton, July 9, 1460; depoſed March 5, 1461, by his fourth couſin, Edward IV; reſtored to his throne, 1470; taken priſoner again, April 11, 1471; his queen and ſon taken priſoners at Tewkeſbury, by Edward, May 4, the ſame year, and his ſon killed in cold blood: he was murdered in the tower, June 20 following, and buried at Chertſey abbey, but removed to Windſor.

EDWARD IV, deſcended from the third ſon of Edward III, born April 29, 1443; elected king March 5, and crowned June 28, 1461; ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the ſiſter of the queen of France, and in the mean time married Eliſabeth the widow of ſir John Grey, May 1, 1464; taken priſoner by the earl of Warwick, in Yorkſhire, and expelled the kingdom, 1470; returned and gained a great victory at Barnet, April 14, 1471; cauſed the duke of Clarence, his brother, who had joined the earl of Warwick, to be drowned in a butt of Malmſey wine, 1478; died of an ague April 9, 1483; was buried at Windſor, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

EDWARD V, born Nov. 4, 1470; conveyed to the tower, May 1483; depoſed June 20 following, and with the duke of York, his brother, ſuppoſed to be murdered in the tower ſoon after; he was ſucceeded by his uncle,

RICHARD III, duke of Glouceſter, brother to Edward IV, born 1453; made protector of England, May 27, elected king June 20, and crowned July 6, 1483; ſlain in battle at Boſworth field, Aug. 22, 1485; was buried at Leiceſter, and ſucceeded by,

HENRY VII (ſee John of Gaunt) born 1455; defeated Richard III, and crowned Oct. 30, 1485; married Eliſabeth, daughter of Edward IV, Jan. 18, 1486; his eldeſt ſon Arthur died, April 2, 1502; his queen died in child-bed, Feb. 11, 1503; married his daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland, 1504, from whom James I of England deſcended; died of a conſumption at

Richmond, April 22, 1509; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

HENRY VIII, born June 28, 1491; married Catherine, infanta of Spain, widow of his brother Arthur, June 3, 1509; crowned June 24 following; received the title of Defender of the Faith, 1521; ſtiled Head of the Church, 1531; married Ann Bullen privately, Nov. 14, 1532; divorced Catherine, May 23, 1533; excommunicated by pope Paul, Aug. 30, 1535; Catherine, his firſt queen, died Jan. 8, 1536; beheaded Ann, his ſecond queen, May 19, and married Jane Seymour, May 20, 1536, who died in childbed, Oct. 12, 1537; ſuppreſſed the religious foundations in England and Wales, 1539; married Ann of Cleves, Jan. 6, divorced her July 10, and married Catherine Howard, Aug. 8, 1540; beheaded her and lady Rochford, Feb. 12, 1542; married Catherine Par, his ſixth wife, July 12, 1543; died of a fever Jan. 28, 1547, was buried at Windſor, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

EDWARD VI, born Oct. 12, 1537; crowned Feb. 20, 1547; fell ſick of the ſmall-pox and meaſles, April 6, 1552; died of a conſumption at Greenwich, July 6, 1553; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded, agreeable to his will, by his couſin,

JANE GRAY, born 1537; proclaimed July 9, 1553; de-

1553; depoſed, and ſent to the tower, July 28 following; beheaded, with lord Dudley her huſband, Feb. 12, 1554, by the order of,

Mary, daughter of Henry VIII, born Feb. 11, 1516; proclaimed July 19, and crowned Oct. 1, 1553; married Philip of Spain, July 25, 1554; died of a dropſy, Nov. 17, 1558; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by her half-ſiſter,

Elisabeth, born Sept. 7, 1533; ſent priſoner to the tower, 1554; crowned Jan. 15, 1559; impriſoned Mary of Scots, who had fled to England for protection, 1568; ſolicited in marriage by the duke of Anjou, 1571, till finally rejected, 1581; beheaded Mary of Scots, Feb. 8, 1587; defeated the Spaniſh armada, 1588; beheaded the earl of Eſſex, her favorite, Feb. 25, 1601; died at Richmond, March 24, 1603; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by,

James I (ſee Henry VII) born June 19, 1556; crowned James VI of Scotland, July 29, 1567; married Ann princeſs of Denmark, Aug. 10, 1589; proclaimed king of England, March 24, and crowned July 25, 1603; firſt ſtiled king of Great Britain, 1604; married his daughter Eliſabeth to Frederic prince palatine of the Rhine, 1612, from whom George I. deſcended; loſt his queen March 3, 1619; died of an ague at Theobalds, March 27, 1625; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon, CHARLES I, born Nov. 19, 1600; married Henrietta of France, May 11, 1625; crowned Feb. 2, 1626; went to the Houſe of Commons and demanded five members, Jan. 1642; raiſed his ſtandard at Nottingham, Aug. 25 following; put himſelf into the hands of the Scots at Newark, May 5, 1646; ſold by the Scots for 200,000l. Aug. 8 following; eſcaped from Hampton-court, July 1648; confined in Windſor-caſtle Dec. 23 following; removed to St. James' Jan. 19, 1649, brought to trial the next day, condemned the 27th, beheaded at Whitehall the 30th, and buried at Windſor.

Oliver Cromwell, born April 25, 1599; made protector Dec. 16, 1653; elected king, but refuſed the title, May 8, 1657; died at Whitehall, Sept. 3, 1658.

Richard Cromwell, born 1623; proclaimed protector, Sept. 4, 1658; depoſed April 22, 1659; died at Cheſhunt in Hartfordſhire, July 12, 1712.

CHARLES II, ſon of Charles I, born May 29, 1630; eſcaped into Holland, 1648; landed in Scotland, 1650; crowned at Scone, Jan. 1, 1651; reſtored to his throne, May 29, 1660; crowned April 13, 1661; married Catherine infanta of Portugal, May 21, 1662; died of an apoplexy, Feb. 6, 1685; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his brother, JAMES II, born Oct. 15, 1633; married Ann Hyde, 1660, who died 1671; married the princeſs of Modena, Nov. 21, 1673; crowned April 23, 1685; fled from his palace, Dec. 12, and left England, Dec. 23, 1688; landed at Kinſale, in Ireland, March 12, 1689; returned to France, July 1690; died at St. Germain's, Aug. 6, 1701.

James, duke of Monmouth, natural ſon of Charles II, landed in England, June 11, and proclaimed king at Taunton, June 20, 1685; was defeated near Bridgewater, July 5, and beheaded on Tower-hill, July 15 following,

WILLIAM III, prince of Orange, born Nov. 4, 1650; married MARY (born April 30, 1662) daughter of James II, Nov. 4, 1677; landed in England with an army, Nov. 4, 1688; proclaimed with his princeſs, king and queen of England, Feb. 13, and crowned Apr. 11, 1689; landed at Carrickfergus, June 14, and defeated James II at the battle of the Boyne, July 1, 1690; loſt his queen of the ſmall-pox, Dec. 28, 1694; fell from his horſe and broke his collar-bone, Feb. 21, 1702; died at Kenſington, March 8 following; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his ſiſter-in-law,

ANN, ſecond daughter of James II, born Feb. 6, 1665; married to prince George of Denmark, July 28, 1683; crowned April 23, 1702; loſt her ſon George by a fever, July 29, 1700; ſettled her revenue of the firſt-fruits and tenths on the poorer clergy, 1704; paſſed the act of union, March 6, 1707; loſt her huſband of an aſthma, Oct. 28, 1708; died of an apoplexy, Aug. 1, 1714; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by,

GEORGE I, elector of Hanover (ſee James I) born May 28, 1660; married Sophia daughter of the duke of Brunſwick-Zell, 1682; created duke of Cambridge, &c. Oct. 5, 1706; proclaimed Aug. 1, landed at Greenwich, Sept. 18, and crowned Oct. 20, 1714; his queen died in Germany, Nov. 2, 1726; died of a paralytic diſorder at Oſnaburgh, June 11, 1727; was buried at Hanover, and ſucceeded by his ſon,

GEORGE II, born Oct. 30, 1683; married the princeſs Wilhelmia Caroline Dorothea of Brandenburgh-Anſpach, 1704; crowned Oct. 11, 1727; married his ſon Frederic, to Auguſta princeſs of Saxe-Gotha, April 27, 1736; loſt his queen Nov. 30, 1737; defeated the French at Dettingen, June 16, 1743; loſt his ſon Frederic of a pleuriſy, March 20, 1751; died ſuddenly at Kenſington, Oct. 25, 1760; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his grandſon,

GEORGE III, born June 4, 1738; proclaimed Oct. 26, 1760; married Charlotte Sophia (born May 19, 1744) princeſs of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, Sept. 18, 1761; and both were crowned Sept. 22 following.

GOVERNMENT of ENGLAND.

The King of Great Britain, though he be not in all reſpects abſolute, yet his dignity and power is very great and extenſive. For his ſupremacy and ſovereignty has the dignity and honour of whatſoever things belong to ſupreme magiſtrates; as crowns, ſceptres, purple robe, golden globe, and holy unction; and the crown of England has been long ſince declared in parliament to be an imperial crown. He acknowledges only precedence to the emperor: he hath the ſupreme right of patronage through all England, called patronage-paramount: he is ſupreme judge, or lord chief juſtice of England, and the fountain whence all juſtice is ſuppoſed to be derived. The king's power and prerogative are very extraordinary; for he alone, without act of parliament, hath power to declare war, make peace, leagues and treaties, ſend and receive ambaſſadors, to give commiſſions for levying men, arms, and money, for the purpoſes of war and peace, &c. By his royal prerogative he can convoke, adjourn, prorogue, remove, and diſſolve parliaments; and can refuſe his aſſent to any bill which has paſſed both houſes, without giving a reaſon. He alone hath the choice and nomination of all commanders and officers at land or ſea; of all magiſtrates, counſellors, and officers of ſtate; of all biſhops, and other eccleſiaſtical dignitaries; of beſtowing all honours on the higher and lower nobility of England. He hath the power of determining rewards and puniſhments, can pardon crimes, and remit the penalties. By his letters patent he may erect new univerſities, colleges, hoſpitals, ſchools, fairs, markets, foreſts, chaces, &c. He only gives patents or briefs to collect the charitable benevolences of the people, in caſe of loſſes, &c. No proclamation can be made but by the king. He is the guardian of ideots and lunatics, the receptacle of all eſtates when no heir appears, which then revert or eſcheat to the king. All treaſure trove (or monies, goods, &c. loſt, and the owners unknown) belongs to the king. All waſte ground and lands recovered from the ſea; all lands of ſuch aliens as die before naturalization; all mines of gold and ſilver, all royal fiſhes and fowls, belong to the king. He is deemed by the laws God's vicegerent, and therefore is ſuppoſed to have no imperfection. No non-age or minority is allowed in the king; and the law attributes to him a kind of perpetuity, not to ſay immortality, for he being a corporation of himſelf, lives for ever; all interregnums being unknown in England. In the church his power and prerogative are extremely conſpicuous; he alone hath the patronage of all biſhopricks, and none can be choſen biſhop but whom he firſt nominates by his congé d'elire: he hath power to call or convene a national or provincial ſynod, to preſide as head, and, with the conſent thereof, to make canons and conſtitutions; to inſtitute ceremonies; to correct hereſies, ſchiſms, &c. And he has abundance of other prerogatives.

The title of the king of England is, By the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith. The title of Moſt Chriſtian King was given to Henry VIII, by the Lateran council, though uſed before by Henry VII. The title of Grace was given to the king about the time of Henry IV. Excellent Grace to Henry VI. High and Mighty Prince to Edward IV. Grace, and ſometimes Highneſs, to Henry VII. To Henry VIII, firſt Highneſs, then Majeſty. And now Sacred Majeſty, or Moſt Excellent Majeſty. In ſpeaking to the king, is uſed Sir, or Your Majeſty: and ſince the time of king John, he ſtiles himſelf We, in the plural number, in his public inſtruments and letters.

The eldeſt ſon of the king of England is born duke of Cornwall; afterward he is created prince of Wales, a title firſt given by Edward V to his eldeſt ſon. Since the union of England and Scotland,

land, his titles are, Prince of Great-Britain, more commonly Prince of Wales, duke of Aquitaine and Cornwall, earl of Cheſter and Flint. He is reputed, in our law, as the ſame perſon with the king.

Next to the king and princes of the blood, are reckoned the great officers of the crown, whereof there are nine, as follow:

The Lord High Steward of England; he was formerly the higheſt officer under the king; and his power was ſo exorbitant, that it was thought too much to be truſted any longer in the hands of any ſubject. The laſt who had a ſtate of inheritance in this high office was Henry duke of Lancaſter, afterward king of England; ſince which time they have been made only occaſionally, as to officiate at coronations, arraignment of peers, &c. which when over, he openly breaks a white ſtaff in his hand, and with it his commiſſion expires.

The Lord Chancellor, or Lord High Chancellor, is, at preſent, the higheſt perſon in the kingdom next after thoſe of royal blood, in civil affairs; ſo called, becauſe all patents, commiſſions, and warrants coming from the king, and peruſed by him, are ſigned, if well; or cancelled where amiſs. His office is to keep the king's great ſeal; to moderate the rigour of common law; to judge according to equity, conſcience, and reaſon; to beſtow all eccleſiaſtical benefices in the king's books under 20l. per annum. He is ſworn to do right to all people, to counſel the king truly, to keep ſecret the king's counſel, not to ſuffer the rights of the crown to be diminiſhed, &c.

Lord High Treaſurer of England is the third great officer of the crown. His office is to have the charge and government of all the king's revenues kept in the exchequer: he is ſuperintendant over all the officers employed in collecting the impoſts, cuſtoms, tributes, &c. belonging to the crown: he hath the gifts of all the officers of the cuſtoms in all the ports of England. He, in commiſſion with others, lets leaſes of all lands belonging to the crown.

The Lord Preſident of the king's privy council is the fourth great officer: his office is to attend upon the king, to propoſe buſineſs at the council table, and to report to the king the tranſactions there.

Lord Privy Seal is the fifth great officer, under whoſe hands paſs all charters and grants of the king, and pardons ſigned before they come to the great-ſeal of England; with divers other matters which do not paſs by the great-ſeal.

The Lord Great Chamberlain of England is the ſixth great officer of ſtate, and is of great antiquity; to him belongs livery and lodging in the king's court. He preſents to the king on the coronation-day all his robes, and other parts of royal attire, as alſo the ſword, ſcabbard, the crown, and gold to be offered by the king, &c. On ſuch a day he hath forty ells of crimſon velvet for his own robes. To him belongs the care of providing all things in the Houſe of Lords in the time of parliament; alſo the government of the whole palace of Weſtminſter. He iſſues out warrants for furniſhing Weſtminſter-hall againſt coronations, and trials of peers, &c. The gentleman-uſher, yeoman-uſhers, and door-keepers, are under his command. He diſpoſes of the ſword of ſtate to what lord he pleaſes to be carried before the king, and goes himſelf on the right hand of the ſword next the king's perſon, and the Lord Marſhal on the left. On all ſolemn occaſions the keys of Weſtminſter-hall, Court of Wards, and Court of Requeſts, are delivered to him.

The Lord High Conſtable of England is the ſeventh great officer; whoſe power and juriſdiction was anciently ſo great, that after the death of the duke of Buckingham in 1521, it was thought too much for any ſubject; and therefore ſince that time this officer is created only on occaſions of coronations, trials by combat, &c. His power and authority are the ſame with the Earl Marſhal, with whom he ſits judge in the Marſhal's Court, and takes place of the Earl Marſhal.

The Earl Marſhal of England is the eighth great officer of ſtate: he is an earl by his office, whereby he takes cognizance of all matters of wars and arms, determines contracts concerning deeds of arms out of the realm upon land, and of war within the realm, which cannot be determined by common law; he formerly had ſeveral courts under him, but now only the Marſhalſea. This office has been long hereditary in the preſent houſe of Norfolk.

The Lord High Admiral of England is the ninth and laſt great officer of the crown. He is intruſted with all maritime affairs, as well in reſpect of juriſdiction as protection: he hath the government of the king's navy, and the power of deciſion in all caſes maritime, as well civil as criminal; and of all things done upon or beyond the ſeas in any part of the world, upon the ſea-coaſt, and rivers near the ſea: he hath power to commiſſionate a vice-admiral, rear-admiral, all ſea captains, and other officers at ſea. To him belong all penalties, amerciaments, goods of pirates, felons, &c. as alſo all ſtray-goods, wrecks at ſea, deodands, &c. all great fiſhes, as ſea-hogs, and all royal fiſhes, except the whale and ſturgeon.

Theſe are the great ſtreams of government, policy, and rule, which flow from the original fountain, the king, to the common people of the realm; among whom it ſubdivides, in various ways, into leſſer currents of power and authority.

The great courts of judicature, civil and military, are as follow:

The Privy-Council; this is that auguſt and honourable aſſembly, by which the king is adviſed and counſelled; and which conſults for the public good, honour, defence, ſafety, and benefit of the realm; not meddling with matters which may be determined by the known laws and ordinary courts of juſtice; but matters of complaint, and ſudden emergencies. The members of this honourable council are ſuch as the king, of his own free will and pleaſure, ſhall chuſe; they are generally of the higheſt rank, and eminent for wiſdom, courage, integrity, &c. They ſit at council-board, when his majeſty preſides; and at all debates the loweſt delivers his opinion firſt, and the king laſt of all declares his judgment, and thereby determines the matter of debate.

The Parliament is the moſt high, grand, and honourable court, in which the moſt ſupreme and abſolute power of the realm of England conſiſts. This high court or aſſembly conſiſts of two parts or houſes, called the Higher and Lower Houſe of Parliament. The members thereof are of three ſorts, viz. the peerage and barony, who repreſent the higher part of the commonwealth; the knights, eſquires, and gentlemen, who repreſent the lower part; and the biſhops or prelates, who repreſent the clergy: over all which the king himſelf preſides.

ſides. The parliament is aſſembled or ſummoned by virtue of the king's writs, commanding the peers and prelates to appear at ſuch a place at ſuch a time, and the ſheriffs of the counties to ſummon the people to elect two knights for each county, two citizens, for each city, and one or two burgeſſes for each borough, according to ſtatute, charter, or cuſtom. The place of meeting is in the king's ancient palace of Weſtminſter; the Lords in one room, and the Commons in another. The King, Lords, and Commons, muſt all, or the greateſt part, agree to the making of laws and repealing them. In order to this, a bill, which contains the form of the matter propoſed, is preſented to one of the houſes, who either approve it, and ſend it to the other houſe for their approbation; or elſe they reject it, and ſo it proceeds no farther that ſeſſions. When a bill has paſſed through both houſes, with conſent, a committee of the members is appointed to frame the laws upon ſuch bill, which are afterward ratified by the whole houſe; and whatſoever is thus approved, conſented to, ratified, and ſanctioned by the King, Lords, and Commons in parliament aſſembled, is called an act of parliament, a ſtatute and ordinance, a rule and law of the land; and is by the ſubjects to be eſteemed juſt and good, and to be obeyed.

The High Court of Chancery, becauſe it is deſigned to mitigate the rigour of the other courts of judicature, is called the court of equity; and is the original of all other courts. The judge of this court is the Lord Chancellor, or Lord Keeper of the Great Seal of England, whoſe ſentence is definitive without a jury of twelve men. The judge hath twelve aſſiſtants, called Maſters of Chancery, the firſt of whom is Maſter of the Rolls, a place of great dignity. Another officer who continually attends the Lord Chancellor, is the Clerk of the Crown, an office of very high importance. There are alſo many other officers in this court, which renders ſuits very chargeable and tedious.

The Court of King's Bench is, next to the Parliament, the higheſt court in England at common law; in which are handled the pleas of the crown, or all things which concern the loſs of life or member of any ſubject; as alſo all treaſon, felonies, breach of peace, oppreſſions, miſgovernments, &c. In this court are four judges, whereof the firſt is called the Lord Chief Juſtice of the King's Bench, whoſe power and juriſdiction is very great over all England.

The Court of Common Pleas is next, and is ſo called becauſe therein are debated the uſual and common pleas between ſubject and ſubject, according to the ſtricteſt rules of law. None but ſerjeants at law may plead in this court. The chief judge is called the Lord Chief Juſtice of the Common Pleas; and there are commonly three inferior judges.

The Court of Exchequer is next for the execution of the laws. In the exchequer are held two courts, one of law, the other of equity. In this court may ſit the Lord Treaſurer, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Lord Chief Baron, three other Barons of the Exchequer, and the Curſitor Baron. This court tries all cauſes relating to the king's treaſury or revenue, as touching accompts, diſburſements, cuſtoms, and all fines impoſed on any man.

The Court of Admiralty is the principal or ſupreme of the courts held by and under the Lord High Admiral; it takes cognizance of all affairs, civil and military, on the ſeas, which are within the juriſdiction of the common law: therefore the proceedings in this court, in all civil matters, are according to the civil law, and run in the name of the admiral, and not of the king, as in common law. In this court he has a lieutenant called Judge of the Admiralty, who is commonly ſome learned doctor of the civil law.

Theſe are the great and high tribunals, or courts of judicature, eſtabliſhed for the public adminiſtration of juſtice and equity.

For the government of the ſeveral counties the king has deputed and commiſſioned ſeveral officers with power and authority to put in force and execute the laws upon the ſubject. These are, the juſtices of the peace, whoſe office it is to charge and keep the peace of the county, and to examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the ſame, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to this, they hold quarterly meetings at ſome of the principal towns, where a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt, is ſummoned to appear, who, upon oath, are to inquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty; the juſtices, after trial, puniſh the former or commit them for further trial at the next aſſizes, and acquit the innocent. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. Sheriffs of the county, or the high-ſheriff, whoſe buſineſs it is to execute the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court, to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and criminals to trial, to ſee the ſentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed, and to wait on and guard the judges twice a year in their circuits for the aſſizes. Under the ſheriff are various officers, as under-ſheriff, clerks, ſtewards, bailiffs, conſtables, goalers, beadles, &c. Bailiff of the hundred, a very ancient officer, but now of ſmall authority. High conſtable was firſt ordained for the conſervation of the peace, and view of armour: he diſperſes warrants and orders of the juſtices of the peace to each petty conſtable. Coroners are two in each county, who are to inquire, by a jury of neighbours, how, and by whom, any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown; whence they have their name crowners or coroners. The clerk of the market, whoſe office is to keep a ſtandard of all weights and meaſures exactly agreeing with the king's ſtandard in the Exchequer, to ſeal all weights and meaſures made exactly by the ſtandard in his cuſtody, and to deſtroy ſuch as are otherwiſe.

COUNTIES of ENGLAND.

Angleſey, is the moſt weſtern county in North Wales, 60 miles in circumference, containing 200,000 acres, 74 pariſhes, and 2 market towns. It is a very fertile county, encompaſſed by the ſea and the river Menai; and noted for producing good mill-ſtones, copper, and fine white clay. It ſends 2 members to parliament; and the chief town is Beaumaris, 243 miles from London.

Bedfordſhire, is an inland county, 73 miles in circumference, containing 205,120 acres, 116 pariſhes, and 10 market towns. It is diverſified with fruitful plains and riſing hills; and famous for a manufacture of ſtraw-goods and bone-lace. It ſends 4 members to parliament; and Bedford, the county town, is 50 miles from London.

Berkſhire, is an inland county, 120 miles in circumference, containing 527,000 acres, 140 pariſhes, and 12 market towns; and in general is very fruitful. It ſends 9 members to parliament; and Reading is the principal town, 39 miles from London.

Brecknockſhire, is an inland county in South Wales, 106 miles in circumference, and contains 620,000 acres, 61 pariſhes, and 4 market towns. It abounds with mountains, ſome of which are exceeding high; but there are alſo large plains and vallies that are very fertile. It ſends 2 members to parliament; and the county town is Brecknock, 159 miles from London.

Buckinghamſhire, is an inland county, 138 miles in circumference, containing 441,100 acres, 185 pariſhes, and 17 market towns. The air is healthy and the ſoil rich, being moſtly chalk or marle. The moſt general manufacture is bone-lace and paper; and it ſends 14 members to parliament. Buckingham, 58 miles from London, is the county town; and Eton is famous for its college.

Cambridgeſhire, is an inland county, 130 miles in circumference, and contains 570,000 acres, 163 pariſhes, 1 city (Ely) and 7 market towns. The air and ſoil of the ſouth parts are very good, but the north fenny and aguiſh. It ſends 6 members to parliament. Cambridge, the county town, 51 miles from London, is a very ancient univerſity, conſiſting of 12 colleges and 4 halls.

Cardiganſhire, is a maritime county in South Wales, 94 miles in circumference, containing 520,000 acres, 64 pariſhes and 4 market towns. The air is milder than in other parts of Wales; to the weſt and ſouth are fruitful plains; and it abounds with veins of lead and ſilver ore. It ſends 2 members to parliament; and the county town is Cardigan, 222 miles from London.

Carmarthenſhire, is a maritime county in South Wales, 102 miles in circumference, containing 700,000 acres, 87 pariſhes, and 6 market towns. The air is mild and healthy, and the ſoil fruitful, it not being ſo mountainous as other counties. It ſends 2 members to parliament; and the chief town is Carmarthen, 204 miles from London.

Carnarvonſhire, is a maritime county in North Wales, 95 miles in circumference, containing 370,000 acres, 68 pariſhes, and 5 market towns. The air is ſharp and cold, it abounding with high mountains, lakes, and rocks; but there are ſeveral fruitful bottoms and pleaſant vallies. It ſends 2 members to parliament; and Carnarvon, 252 miles from London, is the county town.

Cheſhire, is a maritime county palatine, 182 miles in circumference; and contains 720,000 acres, 86 pariſhes, 1 city, and 12 market towns. The air and ſoil are very good; and from hence we have very good cheeſe and a fine white ſalt. It ſends 4 members to parliament; and the principal place is the city of Cheſter, 181 miles from London.

Cornwall, is a maritime county, in circumference 230 miles; and contains 960,000 acres, 161 pariſhes, and 27 market towns. It is a perfect peninſula, and the moſt weſtern county; abounding with mines of tin and lead, with which is dug a yellow ore that affords good copper. The air is healthy, though ſubject to winds and ſtorms; and the ſoil in general hilly and rocky, covered with ſhallow earth, though there are many fruitful vallies near the ſea. It ſends 44 members to parliament; and the chief town is Truro, 206 miles from London.

Cumberland, is a northern maritime county, 168 miles in circumference, containing 1,040,000 acres, 58 pariſhes, 1 city, and 14 market towns. The air is ſharp and cold, and the land for the moſt part hilly: it is noted for mines of black lead, the beſt in the world; there are alſo others of coal, copper, and lapis calaminaris. The principal place is the city of Carliſle, 299 miles from London; and the county ſends 6 members to parliament.

Denbighſhire, is a maritime county in North Wales, 116 miles in circumference, containing 410,000 acres, 57 pariſhes, and 4 market towns.

The air is good, but ſharp, and the ſoil hilly, intermixed with fruitful vallies. It ſends 2 members to parliament. Wrexham is the largeſt town in North Wales; but Denbigh is the county town, 210 miles from London.

Derbyſhire, is an inland county near the middle of England, in circumference 130 miles; and contains 680,000 acres, 106 pariſhes, and 11 market towns. The air in general is good and temperate, except among the mountains of the Peak, where it is ſharp and cold, and the ſoil ſtony; but in the ſouth there is ſome very rich land. It is famous for lead, iron, coal, and marble; and ſends 4 members to parliament. Derby, the principal town, is 126 miles from London, noted for a manufacture of porcelain, and the firſt ſilk-mill erected in England. The firſt cotton-mill was alſo erected in this county.

Devonſhire, is a maritime county in the weſt, 200 miles in circumference; and contains 1,920,000 acres, 394 pariſhes, 1 city, and 38 market towns. The air is ſharp and cold on the hills, which are barren, but pretty temperate in the vallies, which are fruitful when manured: it is noted for cyder and perry; and has mines of tin, copper, and other metals. The principal place is the city of Exeter, 172 miles from London; and the county ſends 26 members to parliament.

Dorſetſhire, is a maritime county, in circumference 150 miles; and contains 772,000 acres, 248 pariſhes, and 22 market towns. The air is ſharp on the hills, but on the ſea coaſt mild and pleaſant; and the ſoil is ſandy, except in ſome rich plains and vallies: it produces free-ſtone, marble, and tobacco-pipe clay; and has both linen and woollen manufactures. It ſends 20 members to parliament; and Dorcheſter, 120 miles from London, is the county town.

Durham, is a maritime northern county, commonly called the biſhoprick of Durham, 107 miles in circumference; and contains 610,000 acres, 113 pariſhes, 1 city, and 6 market towns. The air is good, but cold on the hills, which are generally barren; the eaſtern part is more temperate, and pretty fruitful. It produces coal, iron, and lead; and ſends 4 members to parliament. The city of Durham is the capital, 257 miles from London.

Eſſex, is a maritime county in the eaſt, 146 miles in circumference, containing 1,240,000 acres, 415 pariſhes, and 27 market towns. The air in the inland parts is healthy, but in the marſhes, near the ſea, produces agues. It is noted for the beſt ſaffron in the world, and alſo for oyſters. It ſends 8 members to parliament. Chelmsford is the county town, 29 miles from

London, but Colcheſter is the largeſt and moſt famous.

Flintſhire, is an inland county in North Wales, 40 miles in circumference, containing 16,000 acres, 28 pariſhes, and 1 city. It is full of hills, intermixed with a few vallies, which are very fruitful, and the air is remarkably healthy. It ſends 2 members to parliament. St. Aſaph is an ancient biſhoprick, but a very poor place; and Flint, the county town, 196 miles from London, is ſo inconſiderable as to have no market.

Glamorganſhire, is a maritime county in South Wales, 112 miles in circumference, containing 540,000 acres, 118 pariſhes, 1 city, and 8 market towns. The air is very ſharp on the mountains, which are ſteep and barren; but very mild and temperate near the ſea, where there are ſome rich and fertile plains. It ſends 2 members to parliament. Cardiff is the county town, 161 miles from London; and Landaff is the ſee of a biſhop, but ſo ſmall as to have no market.

Glouceſterſhire, is an inland county, 156 miles in circumference, containing 800,000 acres, 280 pariſhes, 1 city, and 27 market towns. The air is generally good, and the ſoil extremely fruitful. It has mines of iron; produces excellent cheeſe; and ſends 8 members to parliament. The city of Glouceſter is the principal place, 100 miles from London.

Hampſhire, is a maritime ſouthern county, in circumference 100 miles; and contains 1,312,500 acres, 253 pariſhes, 1 city, and 20 market towns. The air is wholeſome, and the ſoil various. Here are ſome woollen manufactures; but it is moſt noted for fine honey, and excellent bacon. It ſends 8 members to parliament. Southampton is deemed the county town; but the aſſizes are held at the city of Wincheſter, 64 miles from London, where there is a noble college.

Hartfordſhire, is an inland county, 130 miles in circumference, containing 45,000 acres, 120 pariſhes, and 19 market towns. The air is very good, and the ſoil fruitful. It ſends 4 members to parliament; and Hartford, the county town, is 21 miles from London.

Herefordſhire, is an inland county, 130 miles in circumference, containing 451,000 acres, 176 pariſhes, 1 city, and 7 market towns. The air is wholeſome; the ſoil fruitful, eſpecially in the vales; and is chiefly noted for wool and cyder. It ſends 8 members to parliament; and the city of Hereford is the capital, 130 miles from London.

Huntingdonſhire, is an inland county, 67 miles in circumference, containing 196,000 acres, 79 pariſhes, and 6 market towns. The air is good, except in the fenny parts, which are aguiſh; and the ſoil is generally rich. It ſends 4 members to parliament; and Huntingdon is the county town, 59 miles from London.

Kent, is a county almoſt encompaſſed by the ſea and the river Thames, in circumference 162 miles; and contains 1,248,000 acres, 408 pariſhes, 2 cities, and 31 market towns. The lower part, where there are fens and marſhes, is very unhealthy; and the agues that are caught continue a long time. It hath iron mines, and is noted for its apples, pears, and cherries. It ſends 18 members to parliament. Maidſtone is the county town, 35 miles from London; but Canterbury, an archbiſhoprick, and Rocheſter, a biſhoprick, are the principal places.

Lancaſhire, is a maritime county, in circumference 170 miles; and contains 1,150,000 acres, 61 pariſhes, and 27 market towns. The air is cold and ſharp, but healthful; and the ſoil is fruitful in ſome parts, in others hilly and barren. Here are large manufactures of velvet and cotton. It ſends 14 members to parliament. Lancaſter is the county town, 235 miles from London; but Leverpool and Mancheſter are the largeſt.

Leiceſterſhire, is an inland county, 96 miles in circumference, containing 560,640 acres, 192 pariſhes, and 11 market towns. The air is very good, and the ſoil in the ſouthern part very fruitful, but barren and ſtoney in the northern. It abounds in coal and limeſtone; and is famous for beans, and for producing large ſheep. It ſends 4 members to parliament; and the chief town is Leiceſter, 99 miles from London.

Lincolnſhire, is a maritime county, in circumference 180 miles; and contains 1,740,000 acres, 631 pariſhes, 1 city, and 31 market towns. It is divided into three parts, Lindſay, Keſteven, and Holland; the air of the laſt is unwholeſome and foggy, on account of the fens and marſhes; and the ſoil in many parts is very fertile. It ſends 12 members to parliament; and the principal place is the city of Lincoln, 132 miles from London.

Merionethſhire, is a maritime county in North Wales, 108 miles in circumference, containing 500,000 acres, 37 pariſhes, and 4 market towns. The air is ſharp on account of the high barren mountains, which are extremely ſteep; but the ſoil in many parts affords food for large flocks of ſheep, many goats, and herds of cattle. It ſends but 1 member to parliament; and the chief town is Harlech, 223 miles from London.

Middleſex, is an inland county, 81 miles in circumference, containing 190,000 acres, and 216 pariſhes; and 4 market towns, excluſive of London and Weſtminſter. The air in general is healthy, and the ſoil fertile. It is the moſt populous county, and yet ſends only 8 members to parliament. Brentford, 7 miles from London, is deemed the county town; but London is the ſee of a biſhop, and the capital of all England.

Monmouthſhire, is an inland county bordering on the mouth of the river Severn, 94 miles in circumference, containing 560,000 acres, 127 pariſhes, and 7 market towns. The air is healthy and temperate, and the ſoil fruitful, eſpecially in the vallies. The chief manufacture is flannel; it ſends only 1 member to parliament; and the county town is Monmouth, 125 miles from London.

Montgomeryſhire, is an inland county in North Wales, 94 miles in circumference, containing 560,000 acres, 47 pariſhes, and 5 market towns. The air is ſharp and cold, on account of the mountains; but in the vallies, which are fertile, it is more mild. It ſends 2 members to parliament; and Montgomery is the chief town, 161 miles from London.

Norfolk, is a maritime eaſtern county, in circumference 140 miles; and contains 1,480,000 acres, 660 pariſhes, 1 city, and 32 market towns. The air is ſharp, but healthy; and the ſoil is various, being rich in ſome places, and in others light and ſandy. The manufactures are ſilk and woollen; and it ſends 12 members to parliament. The city of Norwich, 109 miles from London, is the principal place.

Northamptonſhire, is an inland county, 120 miles in circumference, containing 550,000 acres, 326 pariſhes; 1 city (Peterborough) and 12 market towns. It is a healthful ſporting country, containing a great number of gentlemen's ſeats; and the ſoil is very fertile. The manufactures are ſerges, tammies, and ſhalloons; and it ſends 9 members to parliament. Northampton, 66 miles from London, is the county town.

Northumberland, is a maritime and the moſt northern county of England, in circumference 155 miles; and contains 1,370,000 acres, 460 pariſhes, and 12 market towns. The air is ſharp, and very cold in the winter, from the ſnow lying on the hills, which are at a diſtance from the ſea; but the land on the coaſt is plain and fruitful; and the great plenty of coal produced here is generally known. It ſends 8 members to parliament; and the principal town is Newcaſtle, 272 miles from London.

Nottinghamſhire, is an inland county, 90 miles in circumference, containing 560,000 acres, 168 pariſhes, and 9 market towns. The air is good and healthful; and the ſoil to the eaſt is fertile, but that to the weſt is ſandy and barren. The principal manufacture is ſtockings; it ſends 8 members to parliament; and Nottingham is the county town, 123 miles from London.

Oxfordſhire, is an inland county, 138 miles in circumference, containing 534,000 acres, 280 pariſhes, 1 city, and 12 market towns. The air is mild and healthy; and the ſoil, though various, is fertile, and the hills are ſhaded with woods. It ſends 9 members to parliament. The city of Oxford, 54 miles from London, is the capital, and a celebrated univerſity, conſiſting of 20 colleges and 5 halls.

Pembrokeſhire, is a county in South Wales, nearly ſurrounded by the ſea, in circumference 93 miles; and contains 420,000 acres, 145 pariſhes, 1 city (St. David's) and 8 market towns. The hills are barren, but the ſoil in the vallies and bottoms near the ſea are exceedingly fertile. It ſends 3 members to parliament; and the principal town is Pembroke, 235 miles from London.

Radnorſhire, is an inland county in South Wales, 90 miles in circumference, containing 320,000 acres, 52 pariſhes, and 4 market towns. It is not very fruitful, being full of mountains, which renders the air very cold. It ſends 2 members to parliament. Radnor, 157 miles from London, is the capital, but the aſſizes are held at Preſteign.

Rutlandſhire, is an inland and the leaſt county in England, being no more than 40 miles in circumference. It contains 82,140 acres, 48 pariſhes, and 2 market towns; and ſends 2 members to parliament. The air and ſoil are very good, and the county town is Oakham, 95 miles from London.

Shropſhire, is an inland county, 134 miles in circumference, containing 890,000 acres, 170 pariſhes, and 16 market towns. The air is ſharp on the hills and mountains, but temperate in the lower parts; and the ſoil is pretty fertile every where. It abounds with coal and iron, and ſends 12 members to parliament. Shrewſbury, 156 miles from London, is the county town.

Somerſetſhire, is a maritime weſtern county, in circumference 150 miles; and contains 1,075,000 acres, 385 pariſhes, 3 cities, and 31 market towns. The air is generally good, unleſs in the marſhy parts, and the ſoil is very fertile, except on the hills and in the lower parts. It has ſeveral woollen manufactories, and ſends 18 members to parliament. The principal place is the city of Briſtol, 117 miles from London; and the other cities are Bath and Wells.

Staffordſhire, is an inland county, 141 miles in circumference, containing 810,000 acres, 150 pariſhes, 1 city (Lichfield) and 18 market towns. The air is mild and healthy, and the ſoil in the ſouth part good and rich, though not without heaths, but theſe abound in coal-pits and iron-mines. It ſends 10 members to parliament; is famous for a manufacture of pottery; and the county town is Stafford, 132 miles from London.

Suffolk, is a maritime eaſtern county, in circumference 165 miles; and contains 995,000 acres, 575 pariſhes, and 28 market towns. The air is generally wholeſome, but the ſoil is various. There are manufactures of woollen and linen; it is noted for butter and cheeſe; and it ſends 16 members to parliament. The aſſizes are held at Bury St. Edmund's, but Ipſwich is the largeſt town, 69 miles from London.

Surry, is an inland county, 112 miles in circumference, containing 592,000 acres, 140 pariſhes, and 11 market towns. The air is generally temperate and healthy; the ſoil in the middle parts barren and full of heaths, but in others fertile and good. It ſends 14 members to parliament; and Guildford, 30 miles from London, is the principal town.

Suſſex, is a maritime ſouthern county, in circumference 158 miles; and contains 1,140,000 acres, 312 pariſhes, 1 city, and 16 market towns. The air is often thick and foggy, but not unwholeſome, unleſs it be in the marſhy lands; and the ſoil is rich and fruitful in the middle, but high and chalky on the ſea coaſt. It ſends 18 members to parliament. The city of Chicheſter, 62 miles from London, is the principal place, but the aſſizes are held at Lewes.

Warwickſhire, is an inland county, 110 miles in circumference, containing 670,000 acres, 158 pariſhes, 1 city (Coventry) and 13 market towns. The air is mild and healthful, and the ſoil fertile.

It ſends 6 members to parliament; and is noted for manufactures of hardware, tammies, and ribbons. Warwick is the county town, 93 miles from London, but Birmingham is the largeſt.

Weſtmoreland, is a maritime county, in circumference 110 miles; and contains 510,000 acres, 26 pariſhes, and 8 market towns. The air is ſharp and cold, the country being mountainous, but there are ſome fruitful vallies. It ſends 2 members to parliament; the manufactures are cloth and ſtockings; and the principal town is Appleby, 267 miles from London.

Wiltſhire, is an inland county, 128 miles in circuit, containing 876,000 acres, 304 pariſhes, 1 city, and 20 market towns. The air is generally good, though ſharp upon the hills and downs in winter, but milder in the vales and bottoms, which are very fertile. It ſends 34 members to parliament, and is noted for the woollen manufacture. The principal place is the city of Saliſbury, 82 miles from London.

Worceſterſhire, is an inland county, 130 miles in circumference, containing 540,000 acres, 152 pariſhes, 1 city, and 10 market towns. The air is very healthy, and the ſoil in the plains and vallies exceeding rich. It ſends 9 members to parliament, and the chief articles are cyder, perry, cheeſe, and ſalt. The city of Worceſter, 111 miles from London, is the capital.

Yorkſhire, is a maritime and the largeſt county in England, being 360 miles in circumference, and containing 3,770,000 acres, 563 pariſhes, 1 city, and 54 market towns. It is divided into three parts called Ridings, the North, Eaſt, and Weſt; the laſt is the moſt fertile and populous. The air is in general temperate, and the ſoil in many places very fruitful, but in ſo extenſive a county it muſt be various, and alſo the productions and manufactures. It ſends 30 members to parliament. The principal place is York, the ſee of an archbiſhop, 197 miles from London.

Beſide theſe 52 counties, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by charter from the throne. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton upon Hull, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie.

THE END.

BOOKS printed for W. BENT, Pater noſter Row.

The Polite Reaſoner: in Letters addreſſed to a Young Lady, at a Boarding School in Hoddeſdon, Hartfordſhire. Price 2s. 6d.

The Deſign of theſe Letters is to call forth the early Dawn of Reaſon into Action; to wake the youthful Senſes into Thought; to teach them to reaſon from what they ſee; and to prevent that Ruſt of Erroneous Education, which makes them look with Indifference upon every common Object, however worthy their Attention.

The Juvenile Speaker: or Dialogues, and Miſcellaneous Pieces in Proſe and Verſe; for the Inſtruction of Youth in the Art of Reading. By the Author of the Polite Reaſoner. Price 2s.

The Rule of Life, in ſelect Sentences: Collected from the greateſt Authors, Ancient and Modern. A new Edition, with Additions, Price 3s.

The Precepts, Maxims, and Reflections, contained in this Book, exhibit a Picture of Human Life; wherein the Paſſions, Follies, and Foibles of Mankind, are delineated and expreſſed in their proper Colours: Virtue is ſet forth in the moſt amiable Light, and Vice expoſed in its natural Deformity.

The Pantheon; repreſenting the Fabulous Hiſtories of the Heathen Gods and moſt Illuſtrious Heroes; in a ſhort, plain, and familiar Method, by Way of Dialogue. By ANDREW TOOKE, A. M. A new Edition; reviſed, corrected, amended, and illuſtrated with Cuts of the ſeveral Deities. Price 4s.

The

BOOKS printed for W. Bent, Pater noſter Row.

The Holy Bible, or the Old and New Teſtament, Digeſted, Illuſtrated, and Explained, by Way of Queſtion and Anſwer. In which the principal controverted Points are conſidered, and the Connection of ſacred and Profane Hiſtory preſerved. Compiled chiefly from the Writings of the moſt eminent Hiſtorians, Divines, and Commentators. Deſigned for promoting Chriſtian Knowledge. The Third Edition, corrected, and illuſtrated with Maps, Price 6s.

This Book is recommended to Families and Schools, being the beſt and moſt uſeful Compendium of the Scriptures extant in our own, or perhaps in any other Language.

A Guide to the Engliſh Tongue. In Two Parts. The Firſt, proper for Beginners. The Second, for thoſe of riper Years. By the Rev. Thomas Dyche. A New Edition, improved and enlarged; with an Appendix, containing many additional Leſſons, Fables, and Cuts. Price 1s.

The Public's diſtinguiſhed Preference to this uſeful Book, has induced ſome Perſons to that very unfair Practice of printing ſpurious and imperfect Editions. Let it therefore be remembered, that the genuine and correct Edition is printed only for W. Bent, and has his Majeſty's Licence on the Back of the Title-Page.

BRITISH LIBRARY 30 MAR 74